The Outlook

JANUARY 26, 1916

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THE STORY OF THE WAR: GERMAN ACTIVITY IN THE UNITED STATES

Voluminous explanations and denials have come day by day from Germany as regards the newly discovered evidence of the activities in the United States of Captain von Papen, the recalled military attaché of the German Embassy at Washington. The people of the United States were already pretty thoroughly convinced that some of these activities were altogether outside the limits of the proper duty of a military attaché, and that the threads of connection between Captain von Papen and those accused of plotting against munitions factories and against the neutrality laws and criminal laws of this country were too many and too strong to be ignored.

The papers which were taken from Captain von Papen when he reached England may be capable of explanation—anything seems to be capable of explanation diplomatically—but they certainly are more than suspicious on their face. Photographic facsimiles of the correspondence are on the way to Washington; up to this time we have only the reports and quotations coming by cable from London. These deal with Captain von Papen's check-book, bank-books, and letters. They show, according to the cablegrams, that Captain von Papen paid $700 to Horn, the man who attempted to blow up the Canadian Pacific Railway bridge at Vanceboro; that $500 went to the German Consul at Seattle not long before an explosion occurred there, and that previous payments had gone in the same direction; that other money was paid to an admitted German spy who later committed suicide in England; that money was paid to Paul Koenig, the head of the Secret Service of the Hamburg-American Line in New York, believed also to be engaged in secret service work in the German Government; and that the money paid out by Captain von Papen was much of it admittedly for "secret service work," and came to him from the Germany Embassy; the German Ambassador says as to the last that every one knows that Germany has a secret service in this country, and that he simply acted as financial intermediary between Captain von Papen and the German Government.

The German Government strenuously insists that all these and other payments were proper. The disavowals, however, are sometimes contradictory; for instance, one despatch affirms positively that no money was paid to Horn; a second says that any money paid to Horn was for counsel fees and protection after the attempt to blow up the bridge; and a third says that Horn was a German military officer, and that the attempt to blow up the Canadian bridge was a proper act of war—the last ignoring the fact that Horn violated the American law by operating at the American end of the bridge and is now in prison in Massachusetts for offenses against the American law.

This interesting exposure will, or should, be sifted to the bottom. Meanwhile the facts, even as now known, cast a singular light on the recent semi-official declaration of the German Government that "the German Government, naturally, has never knowingly accepted the support of any person, group of persons, society, or organization seeking to promote the cause of Germany in the United States by illegal acts, by counsels of violence, by contravention of law, or by any means whatever that could offend the American people in the pride of their own authority."

THE BARALONG INCIDENT AGAIN

We spoke last week of the statements made on behalf of Germany and Great Britain in regard to the claim of Germany that the crew of a German submarine were murdered by the crew of the Baralong, a British ship under naval commission. We said then, and we repeat, that if it were true that the crew of the submarine were shot while in the water and after their submarine had been destroyed the act would be murder and

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nothing else. The German Government last week issued a new statement rejecting altogether Sir Edward Grey's expressed willingness to submit the facts to the arbitration of neutrals—perhaps United States naval officers—provided that other similar claims of barbarous conduct long since made by the British Government against Germany were also submitted. In correction of what was said in these pages last week it must be stated that the German proposal was not to submit the Baralong case to arbitration, but was a demand upon the British Government to investigate the case through a British court martial of naval officers. The reports which were current in this country and were quoted here last week were also in error in speaking of the Nicosian, some of the members of whose crew are said by Germany to have witnessed the incident, as an American vessel. It was, in fact, a British vessel which was being chased by the submarine when the latter was attacked by the Baralong.

The new German statement, which is unrestrained in its denunciation of what the German Government calls "a crime defying international law and humanity," has naturally aroused strong feeling in Great Britain; and the counter-reply made by the press, but purporting also to report British official opinion, indignantly denies that the facts were as charged; points out that to select one charge of atrocity for examination and ignore others would be peculiarly partisan and unfair; and gives in detail the facts in the specific cases of naval violation of law and humanity named by Sir Edward Grey in his note, and proposed by him for investigation together with the Baralong case. One of them, that of the destruction of the British submarine E-13 in Danish waters by a German torpedo-boat, is almost exactly the same in substance as the charge against the Baralong. The facts in this case, we understand, are denied by Germany; the facts in the other cases cited by Sir Edward Grey are practically admitted by Germany, and defended on what Germany seems to think an all-sufficing excuse, namely, that these were committed as reprisals. The semi-official British statement adds: "Some surprise is expressed that the nation whose armed forces have been responsible for the sacking of Louvain, the murder of hundreds of unoffending men, women, and children on the Lusitania and other ships, the execution of Edith Cavell, the introduction of poisonous gases, attempted torpedoing of hospital ships, and countless other atrocities, should describe their methods of warfare as humane."

WAR EVENTS OF THE WEEK

In the week ending January 19 the event which stands out most vividly in importance is one, not of fighting, but of surrender. The little nation of Montenegro seems to be out of the war. The fall of Mount Lovcen, the "Gibraltar of the Adriatic," already reported, was quickly followed by the capture of the Montenegrin capital, Cetinje, and that in turn by the announcement in the Hungarian Parliament that King Nicholas of Montenegro and his Government had asked to be allowed to enter into separate peace negotiations, and that this had been granted, but that unconditional surrender had been required as a prerequisite. A result which is predicted as likely to happen is the withdrawal of the Italian forces (reckoned by military writers as between fifty thousand and a hundred and twenty thousand) now in Albania.

The first comment on the reported subjugation of Montenegro was that a brave, small people under a courageous king had fought finely for the ancient liberty of their little rock-bound state and had yielded only to superior forces, crushed between the resistless advance of greater enemy nations. From this point of view Montenegro would be remembered with Servia and Belgium. But another view has also been put forward and is reported in the cable despatches of the last day of our week (January 12–19). This comes from Rome and more than hints that Italy believes that Montenegro had long been in secret league with the Austrians, that Montenegro had once refused a separate peace offered on the condition that she would not aid Servia, but that actually the Montenegrin aid given to Servia was insignificant. All this sounds like an attempt on Italy's part to excuse itself for not aiding Montenegro in its struggle against Austria. We report it for what it is worth.

The situation on the Tigris in Mesopotamia is much more encouraging than it seemed a week ago. There are still extraordinary contradictions in the despatches, as where one London message states that the number of British troops "bottled up" at Kut-el-Amara is ten thousand, and another states that it is forty-five thousand. The former estimate is likely to be nearer the truth. At all events, the report that General Townshend's forces, which retreated from Bagdad to Kut-el-

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Amara, had been divided by the Turks, in part shut up at Kut-el-Amara and in part driven down the Tigris, is now known to be false. What has happened is that a new army under General Aylmer was landed some time ago on the Persian Gulf, and has marched up the Tigris to relieve General Townshend. It is thought probable that this force may include some of the Indian troops taken not long ago from the French line, and perhaps also troops sent from the very large force the British have in Egypt. General Aylmer has advanced towards Kut-el-Amara, and at last report is within a few miles of it, having driven the Turks back and to one side in several sharp engagements.

The Russian armies in eastern Galicia and on the Bessarabian frontier near Rumania continue to be active ; and while the German reports do not admit that the Russians have occupied much new territory, they do admit that the assaults by the Russians are increasing in intensity ; that the losses on both sides have been heavy ; and that wherever the Russians have been repulsed it has been only after desperate fighting, frequently with the bayonet and hand to hand.

The reports that have come from Berlin that Greece has been asked by England and France to dismiss the diplomatic representatives of Germany, Austria, Turkey, and Bulgaria must be reserved for discussion when the facts are clearer than they are at this writing. London despatches of January 19 say that a revolution against the King and in favor of Venizelos and the Allies is only "a matter of hours." The Allies have made landings, it is said, at Piræus (the port of Athens) and at Corinth, and have occupied the island of Corfu and other Greek islands for military and relief purposes.

THE MASSACRE OF AMERICANS IN MEXICO

The cruel and brutal murder of the band of Americans whose leader was Mr. C. R. Watson, a portrait of whom will be found in our picture section this week, continues to stir the country as nothing else has done throughout the long period of anarchy and bloodshed in Mexico, during which several times as many Americans have lost their lives. In the United States Senate there has been a sharp debate on the three or four resolutions introduced. One of these, proposed by Senator Lippitt, of Rhode Island, in terms not only authorizes but instructs the President to use the army and navy of the United States to protect American lives and property in Mexico. Another, introduced by Senator Lewis, of Illinois, authorizes the President to use our forces "in co-operation with Carranza's forces or any other military element in Mexico" for the same purpose. When it was proposed to refer the Lewis resolution to the Foreign Relations Committee, Senator Borah bitterly remarked :

> The resolution had just as well be withdrawn for any good it will do American citizens who are being murdered in Mexico as to send it to the Committee. In that I do not reflect on the Committee, but this very hour is the time when those people need protection and decisive action. The Senate ought to take a decisive step this morning, and notify the Mexican people that, so far as we are concerned, we are ready to use the armed force of the United States to protect our people.

In a previous discussion in the Senate Senator Borah said :

> Five years ago next March seven American citizens were murdered just on this side of the border line, near Douglas, Arizona, and eleven others wounded. I have never talked with any one who has traveled in Mexico since who did not say that the Mexican people expected at that time to see the American Government, in harmony with its ancient traditions, enter on a decisive and positive policy for the protection of American citizens. . . .
>
> We did not go. We gave them to believe from our conduct that we were afraid. They did not interpret our great desire for peace as anything other than fear. We have gathered the harvest of indecision many times over.
>
> With that incident five years ago next March began that compromising, side-stepping, procrastinating, apologizing, un-American policy of leaving the American citizen to struggle for himself against bandits and outlaws, against assassins and murderers.

The defense of the Administration by Senator Stone, of the Foreign Relations Committee, laid emphasis on the fact that these murders were committed by Villa bandits ; that the real object of the murders was to make trouble between Villa's arch-enemy, Carranza, and the United States ; and that, as we have recognized Carranza, we ought to give him a chance to punish the bandits and establish his authority in the districts still infested by the robbers and murderers who are now the dispersed remnants of Villa's army.

It seems to be well established that the

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Watson party asked for safe-conduct from Carranza's representative before embarking on their fatal railway journey, and received official assurances that both the railway and the mines to which they were going were safe. As Santa Ysabel is only a short distance from the central railway town Chihuahua, held by Carranza, it certainly seems either that the recognized head of the alleged Mexican Government should be held responsible for crimes committed in that district or that he should openly admit that the situation there is beyond his control.

To Americans even the actions of Carranza, taken to please us, are not precisely agreeable; thus we have the extraordinary tale of the bringing of the dead body of General Rodriguez to Chihuahua to show that he had been executed as ultimately responsible for the crime, with the result that the body proved to be not that of Rodriguez but of some wretched peon; we have also the grim account of the "execution" of another Villa officer or bandit who was shot in the head by Carranza officers in the main room of the Juarez railway station in the presence of women and children, while his body was left to lie all night in this waiting-room as an example; we have also the cheering news that Carranza has organized "a great bandit hunt," and that his officers declared that they would be satisfied only when they captured Francisco Villa and "displayed the bandit chief's bullet-riddled body in public." If these are specimens of Carranza's methods of pacification, what kind of "representative and peaceful government" are we to expect from him?

The death of Victoriano Huerta at El Paso on January 13 calls for no extended comment. A full-blooded Indian racially (his enemies said that he was part Apache), Huerta pushed his way up from the peon class to which he belonged to important military positions, and later became a political as well as a military power. Diaz distrusted him, but used him; De La Barra sent him against Zapata, but feared him; Madero knew that Huerta was a traitor, but could not avoid him, and Madero died in the streets of Mexico a murdered man. The world will always believe, despite Huerta's denials, that he had a hand in Madero's murder, and there are other dark blots in his career, notably in the days that followed his dispersion of the Mexican Senate. The Outlook has always declared that President Wilson was justified in refusing to recognize Huerta. Though he had qualities of leadership, he was an evil, avaricious, and bloody-minded man.

MOBILIZING OUR INDUSTRIES

President Wilson has taken a definite and commendable step towards the necessary work of mobilizing our industries for the work of National defense. He has asked each of the five leading scientific associations of the country to appoint a representative for each State in the Union to assist the Naval Consulting Board in the work of collecting data for use in organizing the manufacturing resources of the country. This request of the President, made public in a letter to Mr. W. L. Saunders, President of the American Institute of Mining Engineers, is one the necessity for which has been pointed out for some time. Prior to the publication of the President's request, the American Institute of Mining Engineers had already made a preliminary survey of the industries of the State of New Jersey. It was found, according to Mr. Saunders, that in that State alone there were eight hundred factories which produced articles that would be needed by the Government in the event of war. A similar cataloguing of our National resources in the other States will proceed as rapidly as possible.

That more than a mere cataloguing of resources is needed, however, was pointed out by Mr. F. T. Miller in an article in The Outlook for November 17 last. The complete mobilization of our industries for defense involves three general propositions. Mr. Miller summarized these three as follows:

(1) The enumeration and classification of all manufacturing plants in the country, the ascertaining of the number and kinds of machines they use, and the number of workmen, skilled and unskilled, they employ. The purpose of this is to enable the Government to locate all private plants capable of manufacturing war *matériel*—not only complete war *matériel*, but "parts" to be "assembled" at the United States arsenals.

(2) The compilation by the various bureaus of the army and navy of all the designs and specifications needed in placing orders with manufacturers, exception being made of the designs which it is intended to keep secret.

(3) The training of manufacturers and their employees in the production of war *matériel* by placing with them in time of peace small orders

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for the munitions and supplies required annually by the army and navy.

With Mr. Miller's advocacy of this programme The Outlook is in hearty sympathy. So far the suggestion that has come from the Administration involves only a part of the work that must ultimately be done. Nevertheless, this initial step cannot be pressed too rapidly, nor too enthusiastically supported.

THE E-2 DISASTER AND SUBMARINE MOTIVE POWER

Until the special Board of Inquiry appointed by Secretary Daniels to investigate the causes of the explosion on the submarine E-2 which killed four men and injured several others brings in its report it is premature to attempt to place the responsibility for the disaster. Conclusions of the Board of Preliminary Investigation appointed by Admiral Usher, Commandant of the Brooklyn Navy-Yard, in which the E-2 lay when the explosion occurred, indicate as a cause of the explosion the ignition of gas generated by the new Edison storage batteries with which the submarine was equipped. Lieutenant-Commander Pope Washington, Lieutenant L. M. Stewart, and Lieutenant Rush S. Fay, who composed the Board, reported that "the explosion was due to an excessive amount of gas—namely, hydrogen—generated from the storage batteries, forming with the air a highly explosive mixture. . . . The ignition was caused by a spark, the origin of which the Board is unable to determine. . . . The condition of the batteries at the low voltage and amperage, 82 and 940 respectively . . . would probably cause a reversal of voltage in some of these cells, and, in the opinion of the Board, this caused the generation of an excessive amount of hydrogen gas."

The problem of finding a model battery to generate the electricity which is the motive power of all submarines when submerged has agitated marine engineers and naval architects since the old hand-power method used in Bushnell's "Intelligent Whale" was proved impracticable. When on the surface, submarines of practically all the nations except France are driven by gasoline engines or by motors which burn heavy fuel oil, but the heavy oil engine is rapidly supplanting the gasoline motor. Some of the French boats, however, still use steam turbines. But it has been found impossible to use either gasoline, oil, or steam for driving submarines when submerged because of the difficulty of providing an outlet for the exhaust from such engines. Consequently in all the navies of the world electric motors have been adopted to drive submarines when under water.

The battery commonly used to generate the power for such electric motors contains a solution of sulphuric acid. But sulphuric acid coming in contact with sea water forms chlorine gas, the deadly vapor which Germany has used with such ghastly effect in trench warfare. The great advantage claimed for the new Edison battery with which the E-2 was equipped is that it contains a potash solution instead of sulphuric acid, therefore obviating danger of chlorine poisoning.

Much has been heard of the new Edison device during the past year or two, and it has been reported that several large European Powers were bidding for the exclusive use of it. It was commonly supposed, however, that our navy was the only one using this battery, until Mr. Edison's chief engineer, Dr. Miller Reese Hutchinson, stated after the explosion on the E-2 that three submarines of a European Power, "not Germany," are equipped with these batteries, and that one of them "has sunk seventeen ships, including a troop transport and her destroyer escort."

The possibilities of the submarine disclosed by this war have been sensational, and on the further development of these possibilities depends largely the development of modern naval warfare. The report of the special Board of Inquiry appointed by Secretary Daniels will, therefore, be heard around the world, for the naval experts of all the Powers are exercised over the question of the proper motive power for a submarine when submerged. Some authorities are now asserting that the old battery is best, after all. They point out that chlorine gas is never generated unless sea water reaches the sulphuric acid in the battery. Such a condition, they say, can exist only when sea water is leaking in through the hull of the submarine and when the sulphuric solution is leaking out through the case of the battery. An undersea boat in which either one of these conditions alone is present is *ipso facto* unfit for service, say the defenders of the old-time battery.

These critics of the Edison invention declare that hydrogen gas has peculiar dangers as great as those inherent in chlorine gas, and

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they fear the Edison battery, since, as it uses a thirty per cent stronger current and a forty per cent greater number of cells, it produces a much larger amount of hydrogen than the old type of battery.

But the Edison battery has manifest advantages, and, even if its defects were responsible for the disaster on the E-2, it should not be condemned until it has been thoroughly tried out under the supervision of experts.

SENATOR ROOT ON SELF-RESPECTING DEMOCRACY

The Outlook on more than one occasion has found itself in emphatic disagreement with Senator Root. Disagreement over matters of political ethics furnishes no reason, however, to withhold from Mr. Root credit for his clear-sighted understanding of our foreign relations and of the needs of a self-respecting democracy in the matter of defense both of its shores and of its ideals.

In a recent address before the New York Bar Association Senator Root again voiced the same feeling concerning our international obligations which he frequently and admirably displayed during the debates on the Ship Subsidy Bill in the last session of Congress. Mr. Root said:

That eternal vigilance is the price of liberty is such a truism that it has lost its meaning, but it is an eternal truth, and the principles of American liberty to-day stand in need of a renewed devotion on the part of the American people. We have forgotten that in our vast material prosperity. We have grown so rich, we have lived in ease and comfort and peace so long, that we have forgotten to what we owe those agreeable incidents of life. . . . God knows I love peace and I despise all foolish and wicked wars, but I do not wish for my country the peace of slavery, or dishonor, or injustice, or poltroonery. I want to see in my country the spirit that beat in the breasts of the men at Concord Bridge, who were just and God-fearing men, but who were ready to fight for their liberty. And if the hundred million people of America have the spirit, and it is made manifest, they won't have to fight. . . . The whole business of government in which we are all concerned is becoming serious, grave, threatening. No man in America has any right to rest contented and easy and indifferent, for never before, not even in the time of the Civil War, have all the energies and all the devotion of the American democracy been demanded for the perpetuity of American institutions, for the continuance of the American Republic against foes without and more insidious foes within, than in this year of grace 1916.

What Mr. Root has said here is familiar enough in thought to every American. It is the familiar things, however, which are often in danger of being forgotten.

THE RETIRING CHILEAN AMBASSADOR

On another page we print a portrait of Señor Don Eduardo Suarez-Mujica, Ambassador from Chile at Washington. The announcement of his retirement will come to his many friends with a shock of surprise. Since the death of Senhor Nabuco, the Brazilian Ambassador, a specially distinguished figure among the Latin-American diplomats has been that of Señor Suarez.

Striking in physical appearance and courtly in manner, Señor Suarez has doubled this impression by the dignity and aptness of his spoken words. For instance, take his address at a meeting of experts at Clark University to consider the problems of Latin America, when he pointed out that the men who settled North America came here to found a system of freedom and liberty, whereas those who settled South America went there to conquer and exploit. Under such conditions, as the Ambassador added, people have not always appreciated the fact that the South Americans in their struggles towards ideal social and political conditions have had to fight harder than their brethren in the North.

Again, take Señor Suarez's address in assuming the chair as President of the still more recent Pan-American Scientific Congress at Washington, when he declared that so long as the Monroe Doctrine was understood as a threat it was distrusted by South and Central America, but that, defined as a derivation of Pan-Americanism, it had become a "tie of union, a guaranty, a bulwark for our democracy." Señor Suarez added:

Although representing only one of the republics, I am convinced that I am interpreting the thought and feeling of each and every one of them when I say that the Government of the United States to-day completes the erasing with a friendly hand of the last traces of past misunderstandings and erroneous interpretations which had in former times clouded the horizon of America.

Señor Suarez is fifty-six years old. He was born at Santiago de Chile, and is a graduate of the University there. He went early

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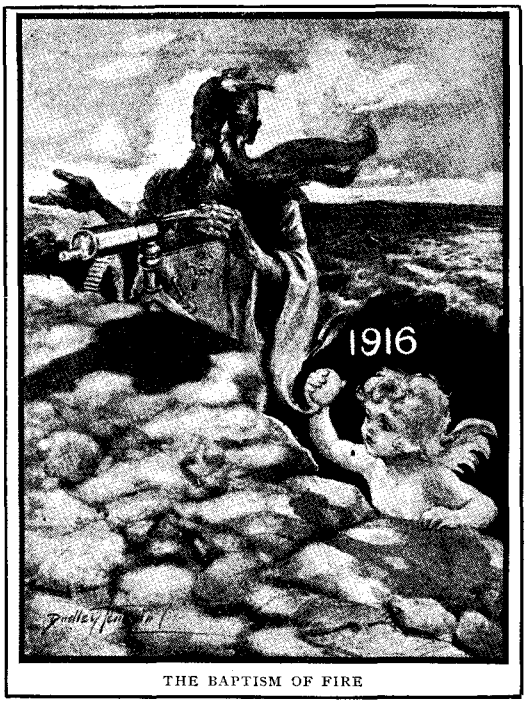
CARTOONS OF THE WEEK

Brinkerhoff in the Milwaukee Leader

THE GRIPPELINS ARE UPON US

THE WAR OF THE GRIP MICROBES ON AMERICA

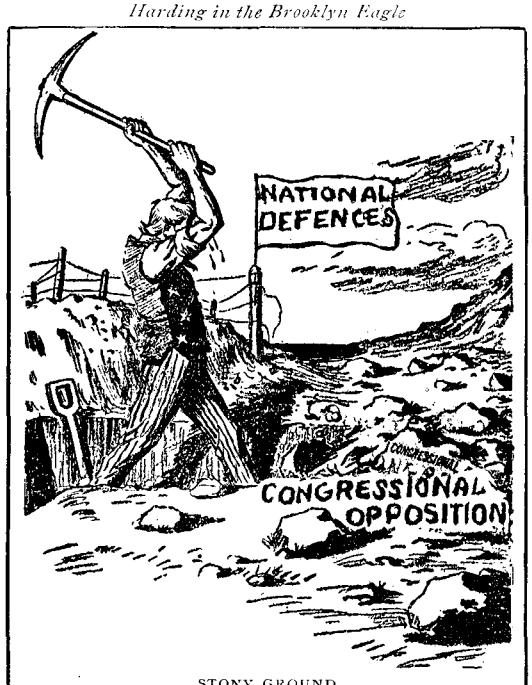
From the Bystander (London)



THE BAPTISM OF FIRE

ENGLAND WELCOMES THE COMING YEAR WITH ALL ITS TRAGEDY

Harding in the Brooklyn Eagle



STONY GROUND

PREPAREDNESS HAS A HARD WINTER BEFORE IT

From the Providence Daily Journal

OUR MORAL VICTORY!

GERMANY AGREES TO COMPENSATION—BUT WE TAKE HER MONEY FOR OUR LIVES!

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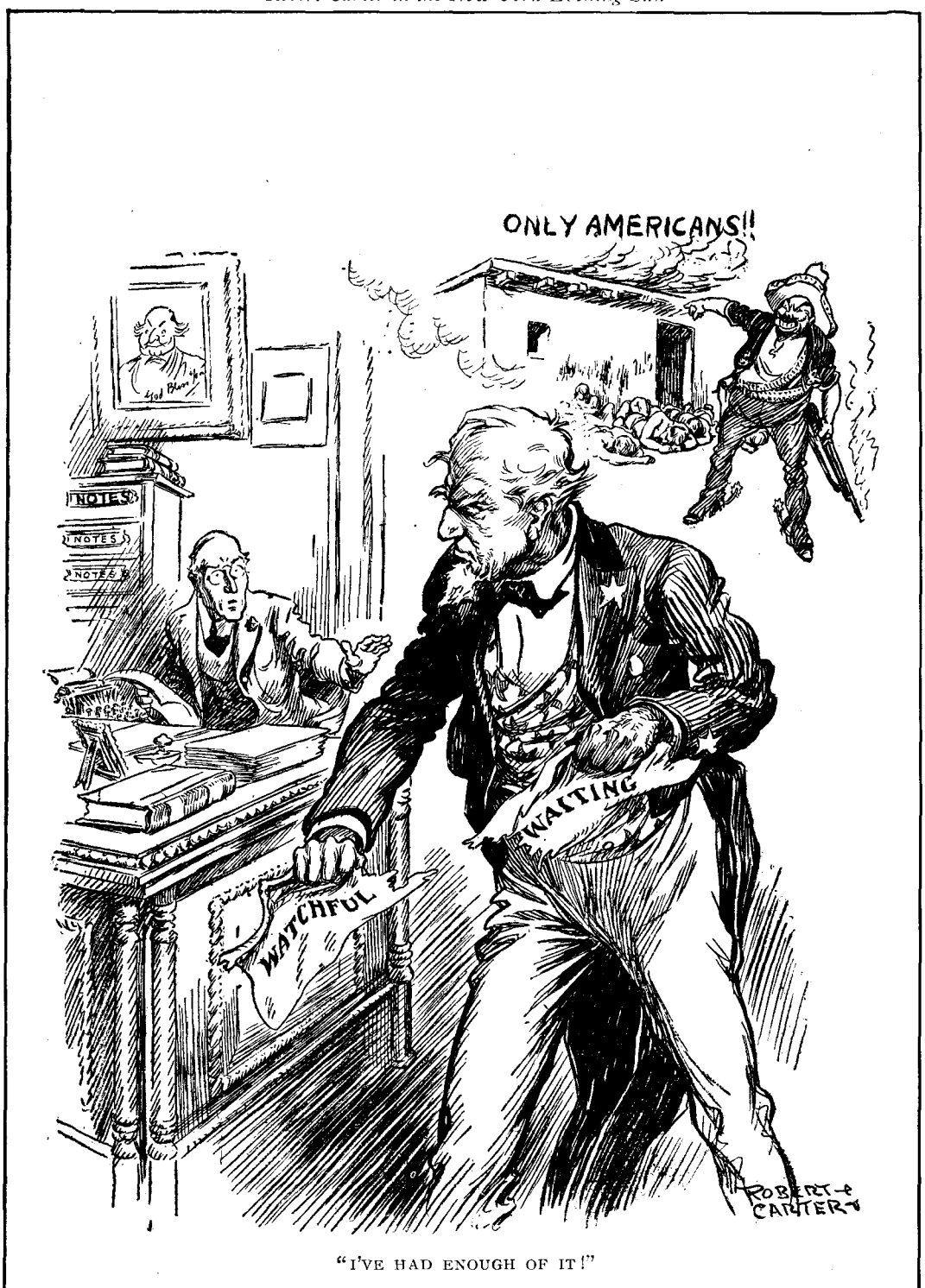
CARTOONS OF THE WEEK

Robert Carter in the New York Evening Sun



"I'VE HAD ENOUGH OF IT!"

UNCLE SAM'S PATIENCE HAS A LIMIT

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into the Foreign Office, and rose through the various ranks to be Acting Secretary. Then he was appointed Governor of the Province of Atacamá in northern Chile. He was elected a member of the Chilean Congress and served during two terms of three years each. He became Minister of Justice and Public Instruction. He then returned to the diplomatic service in the capacity of Envoy to Mexico and Cuba, from which he was transferred to this country. His career in Washington certainly forms an example for others to follow.

THE FRENCH SOCIALISTS

The latest number of the Paris "Temps" to reach us gives an account of the French Socialist Congress, which closed its session on the last day of 1915. The Congress was of special interest because it afforded an official record of the attitude of the French Socialists.

The final resolution, adopted by 2,736 votes against 76, there being 102 absentees, announced that the French Socialists were united with all France in "a war purely of defense and exclusive of all plans of conquest and annexation." The resolution proclaimed that the French Socialists would remain with the Government until conditions of peace should be assured. Among these conditions, it declared, must be:

An establishment of justice among the people.

A restoration of economic and political independence in the case of the small martyred nations.

The restoration of all oppressed populations of Europe of freedom to decide for themselves to whom they shall belong. Especially is this true of Alsace-Lorraine; it must itself affirm by vote to what country it wishes to belong.

A new organization of international law, a work particularly incumbent upon the Socialist party in its conviction that it represents the conscience of humanity, which is the most certain guaranty of absolute peace.

As long as the iniquity of capitalism exists, with its developments in colonialism and imperialism, the danger of war is evident.

Prussian militarism is, of all militarisms, the most dangerous for the security of the world; hence the duty to make Prussian militarism accept the dictates of justice.

The Allies must institute general arbitration among themselves, an example which would be gratefully followed by the neutral nations.

The Allies need not only the victory of arms, but also the sympathetic assistance of the peoples of the world, and, first of all, that of the Germans themselves, when they are delivered from the abominable hypnotism into which their Government has plunged them.

The French Socialist party will find its proper and particular activity in inducing the German Sozialdemokratie to give force and life again to the above principles. German Socialism can shorten the war, and the French Socialist party calls upon it to do its duty.

In conformity with its principles the Congress declares that it will continue to assure the necessary means of victory by voting financial credits, will continue to participate in the work of national defense by the activity of its delegates in the French Government, and declares its adherence to the vow taken by the Governments of France, Russia, Japan, Italy, and England not to conclude a separate peace.

It has been said that one of the perils of the present war is the overemphasis on nationalism. While we may not agree to its criticisms on capitalism, the action of the French Socialist Congress seems to us justly to uphold the nationalism and unity of France. It also affirms other principles of life and conduct which all right-thinking men will applaud.

THE GERMAN SOCIALISTS

The German Socialists, on the other hand, are not united. The majority stands with the Government. The minority does not. The best-known minority leader is Herr Liebknecht, of whom an account appears on another page. The majority Council has just "read him out of the party."

This Council has also dropped the famous "Vorwärts" as an official party organ. But "Vorwärts" is apparently being read more than ever; certainly it is being quoted more than ever.

As showing the steady growth of the anti-Government sentiment among the members of the Socialist division of the Reichstag, "Vorwärts" notes that in the meeting of the section in August, 1914, at which the attitude to be taken by the division toward the war credits was defined, only 14 votes were cast against giving the Kaiser what he asked, while in the meetings held regarding the second, third, fourth, and fifth credits the Opposition numbered 17, 23, 36, and 43, respectively.

Not all the members of the division were present at the last meeting, but "Vorwärts" bases its figures on statements made to the chairman of the section by those who were

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absent because of sickness or other good reasons as to how they would have voted in case they had attended.

This growing Socialist minority may shortly become a Socialist majority. Its protests concerning food and finance have been voiced not only in its papers but in Parliament; and likewise has been expressed its conviction, like that of the French Socialists, that a durable peace can be made only on a non-annexation basis.

Since the publication of these facts Herr Hirsch, Socialist, expressed the sentiments of the minority in last week's discussion in the Prussian Landtag as he declared: "We demand the re-establishment of the complete independence of Belgium."

Success to this Socialist elbow!

YOUNGSTOWN AND AMERICANIZATION

The Youngstown strike and riot now happily belong to past history. But a similar occurrence may break out again wherever similar conditions exist. It would seem, however, as if they could hardly exist in such an extreme degree as in East Youngstown, where the recent riot took place.

The town is a suburb, in the Mahoning Valley, of Youngstown, and has a population of 9,700, mostly Poles, Lithuanians, and Serbs; but actual registered voters, we learn, number only 462! Those who really vote range from two hundred to three hundred.

So much for actual citizenship. How about education? The total school enrollment in this population of 9,700 is reported as 1,102. Of the 1,102 only nine are reported to be in the high school and only twenty in the eighth or top grammar grade; there are 825 in the first, second, and third grades.

There are no kindergartens and there are no night schools!

When the Superintendent of Education was reproached with this last fact, he replied, so we learn, that "the Board of Education had refused a dollar for teaching foreigners." Nor had the Mayor of Youngstown, we are told, any plan to bring the dense masses of foreigners under Americanizing influences.

There are nineteen saloons, however, and in its thirst for drink the mob looted them. The riot was surely an appropriate temperance lesson.

Did the State protect its law-abiding citizens in Youngstown? Did the two companies of militia promptly appear on the scene of action? Did the troops from Cleveland arrive in time? No, to all of these questions. When the prospect is that a State will not protect its citizens, then private individuals and companies employ detectives and arm them. They have no other course. The result is private war—always detestable.

The Youngstown Chamber of Commerce has now praiseworthily decided upon a survey of the problem of assimilation and Americanization of the foreign population. The Youngstown Young Men's Christian Association has heartily indorsed this and has pledged its co-operation and its special facilities of organization and plant. Such co-operation is particularly pertinent when we realize, as a correspondent informs us, that, incredible as it may seem, there is no church whatever—Roman Catholic, Greek Catholic, or Protestant—in East Youngstown.

The place certainly furnishes the approaching Americanization Congress in Philadelphia with an impressive text.

This problem of Americanizing the immigrant is one of the most acute problems before the American people to-day. Next week we shall give an account of the Americanization Congress at Philadelphia, and in a forthcoming issue we shall print an article by a member of the Outlook staff giving an account of one effective attempt to help the immigrant to become in fact as well as in name American.

THE CHILD LABOR BILL

The Keating-Owen Child Labor Bill has been favorably reported in the House of Representatives from the Labor Committee, despite strenuous opposition by an organization of manufacturers. The bill would prevent inter-State commerce in goods produced by the labor of children under fourteen years of age, or of children between fourteen and sixteen employed for more than eight hours a day. The main objection was to the provision which limits the hours of labor for children under sixteen years to eight instead of eleven a day.

Witnesses were brought forward to explain the light nature of work in the cotton mill; to present the intimate friendship existing between mill operatives and managers; to denounce the backward conditions on mountain farms from which helpless families are rescued by the cotton mill; and to cite kindergartens, hospitals, and churches built by the corporations as evidence of their interest in

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community welfare. One physician came forward, we are informed, to testify that *eleven hours' work a day was not excessive for a twelve-year-old girl!* In justice to the profession it should be recorded that he is employed by a corporation.

The legal counsel of the cotton manufacturers, ex-Governor W. W. Kitchin, brother of Claude Kitchin, the floor leader of the House, summed up the opposition of his clients in an address announced as "The Constitutional Argument." His remarks were directed chiefly against the desirability of the proposed law on the ground that the textile industry in the South is new and cannot grow under such rigid restrictions; that it would be detrimental to poor parents to be deprived of the support of their children; that the law would require a reorganization of factories and added machinery. The contention of Mr. Kitchin that an arbitrary age limit for children cannot be fixed by law "any more than you can tell when a pig becomes a hog" may be compared with Mr. Kitchin's declaration when Governor that North Carolina should fix an age limit below which children may not be employed. Mr. Emery, counsel for the National Association of Manufacturers, admitted the reasonableness of the standards proposed in the bill, but argued that if Congress passed such a law it would establish a Federal despotism.

On the other hand, argument was presented by the counsel of the National Child Labor Committee, Mr. Thomas I. Parkinson, of the Columbia University Law School, who urged the reasonableness of the proposed legislation and the impossibility of controlling the evil complained of by any other method.

This bill was before the last Congress and after three hearings it passed the House of Representatives by an overwhelming majority. No one, it is asserted by the friends of restriction of the evils of child labor, has ever appeared against the bill except a few Southern cotton-mill men who profess to fear injury to their business and to the poor families who work for them, and the official representative of the National Association of Manufacturers, who fear an extension of Federal power. Some of the opponents, a correspondent thoroughly well informed writes to The Outlook, "have fought every attempt to improve the child labor laws of their own States, and now come to restrain the Federal Government from doing so on the ground that the States are competent to control the evil, while the National Association of Manufacturers appears to take a pot shot at a bill designed to prohibit the employment of twelve-year-old girls for an eleven-hour day."

WARDEN OSBORNE, OF SING SING

Public sentiment in New York City is heartily with Thomas Mott Osborne, former Warden of Sing Sing Prison, in his contest with the corrupt forces which are endeavoring to destroy the system inaugurated by him for the humane treatment of prisoners. These forces have secured his indictment on charges of malfeasance in office and personal corruption. His friends believe that the evidence on which this indictment was obtained is flimsy and unreliable in the extreme, and that he will emerge triumphant from the trial.

This is indicated by a great mass-meeting which was held last week in Carnegie Hall in New York City, under the auspices of some of the foremost citizens of the metropolis. Mr. Joseph Choate was to have presided, but was prevented by a slight indisposition. Resolutions of confidence, prepared by Mr. Adolph Lewisohn, of the National Prison Committee, were adopted, and, under the chairmanship of Mr. Isaac N. Seligman, addresses were made by Dr. Felix Adler, the head of the Ethical Society; Judge William H. Wadhams, of the Court of General Sessions; Miss Lillian D. Wald, the distinguished settlement worker; Mr. Hugh Frayne, officially representing the American Federation of Labor; and Messrs. Francis Lynde Stetson and James Byrne, of the New York Bar. The Chairman read a resolution which had been adopted by the Grand Jurors' Association of New York County in support of Mr. Osborne, as well as letters expressing profound sympathy with Mr. Osborne's work and the purposes of the meeting from Dr. Greer, Episcopal Bishop of New York, and Mr. George W. Wickersham, formerly Attorney-General of the United States.

All of the addresses aroused the enthusiastic approval of the audience, but two of them made an especial impression. Mr. Frayne said that one of the chief functions of the American Federation of Labor was to help the man who was down and out to get back on his feet, and as that was also the deep purpose of Mr. Osborne, the Federation desired to give him its very best support. Judge Wadhams's judicial posi-

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tion gives him a knowledge of the history of crime and criminals in the city of New York not surpassed certainly by that of any other citizen. He not only read statistics which proved the practical and successful efficacy of Mr. Osborne's method of dealing with prisoners, but he gave in an eloquent and deeply interesting manner some of his own personal experiences with men whom he had seen tranformed by Mr. Osborne's influence. He asserted that Mr. Osborne had been indicted because he had put an end to the favoritism shown to wealthy convicts, to the surreptitious use of whisky and drugs and the graft connected with their use, and to the profits of dishonest contractors who in times past have exploited the wretched prisoners working for a pittance a day.

When such men as Judge Wadhams, Mr. Wickersham, Mr. Stetson, and Mr. Byrne, who are thoroughly familiar with court procedure and the administration of criminal law, publicly state their belief that Mr. Osborne is a man of the most upright personal character, who has effected the most beneficent reforms in prison management, and is being persecuted because of the very purity and efficiency of his life, the layman can hardly be blamed for attaching little importance to his indictment.

THE NEW YORK PRISON EXHIBIT

The first thing of its kind in this country, the recent Prison Exhibit in New York City, relating to the correctional institutions of New York State, will bear repetition there and imitation in other States. The exhibit was the work of the Joint Committee on Prison Reform, an organization that has grown out of the Women's Department of the National Civic Federation. Although the exhibition related specifically to the prisons, reformatories, and county jails of New York, it threw light on some general prison problems which are much the same throughout the country.

Illustrative of the great change that has marked the attitude of society toward its offenders within the past century was the contrast between the philosophy of penology voiced by the New York Senate Committee on Prisons in 1822, and that as expressed recently by Warden Osborne of Sing Sing. That famous institution was established in 1827 to fit the following idea that had been contained in the Senate Committee's report:

"To make any impression upon the minds of either convicts or the public, there must be suffering [on the part of the inmates], and to make any adequate impression such suffering as will excite feelings of terror."

But Sing Sing to-day, says the Joint Committee on Prison Reform, "is unfit to meet the idea" expressed by Mr. Osborne that—

"The prison should aim to restore to society a man who through the education he has gained is desirous and capable of living an honest and useful life."

"Sing Sing must go" is the conclusion of the backers of the Prison Exhibit, who brand the institution as unsanitary, inhuman, and so hopelessly out of date that any money spent on altering the present prison plant is merely money used to prolong an evil.

In the place of Sing Sing and similar institutions the Joint Committee advocates the farm industrial prison, such as that at Great Meadow, where prisoners get plenty of outdoor exercise and mental discipline to keep their minds off evil things.

Similar changes are urged in the county jails, which are said to have most of the faults of the Sing Sing type of State prison, and which are called "prep. schools of crime." St. Lawrence County, which gives its county prisoners farm labor, has saved itself thirty-six cents per man per week, and has vastly raised the moral tone of the prisoners.

The Joint Committee condemns the slow-moving grand jury system under which in thirty-six counties of New York persons may be held in jail from four to six months awaiting trial. It emphasizes the need of parole officers and reformatories for women offenders, it urges the establishment of a special institution for feeble-minded criminals, it points out the desirability of giving prisoners an incentive by turning over to them or their families a percentage of the earnings of their industry proportionate with their willingness and ability. Finally, it condemns the definite sentence, saying that it is as cruel and stupid for a judge to send a man to jail for a definite term as it would be for a doctor to commit a patient for a definite term to a hospital.

"NOT TO REFORM, BUT TO INFORM"

A certain city had been investigating the question of sewage disposal for about three years. It had sent committees of the Common Council to many cities, it had hired experts, and spent a good deal of money

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before finally adopting a plan. About that time—a little over four months ago—a Bureau of Municipal Information was established at Albany, New York, and it immediately informed this city that the plan it had adopted had been in use in another city for some time. Here is a case where one city might have profited by the experience of another and saved time and expense. Even as it was, on the information supplied from that Bureau, that city may be able to change its plans and effect a saving of more than fifty thousand dollars.

This is an example of the need and the usefulness of such a Bureau of Municipal Information. It is interesting that the conservative State of New York has taken the lead in establishing a co-operative agency of this kind. It was created under the auspices of the State Mayors' Conference, and is supported by the cities of the State which make use of the Bureau. The amount paid by a city is determined by its size. Since September 1 the number of queries which that Bureau has received from the cities of New York State alone shows that there is reason for its existence. But the cities of the State are not the only ones interested. Inquiries have come to the Bureau from cities all over the United States. Even from far-off Bombay has come an inquiry for one of the reports of this Bureau. Indeed, its director, Mr. William P. Capes, who is also Secretary of the State Mayors' Conference, says that were the Bureau to supply all of its reports to all of the city officials, libraries, and other organizations that asked for them, it would soon be bankrupt.

The function of the Bureau is not to recommend, but simply to supply data on existing conditions in other cities, furnish all available data on any municipal problem, gather and distribute data among city officials, keep officials in touch with each other by distributing new ideas and plans, watch legislation affecting municipalities, and on request to represent any city before any subdivision of the State government. It has a clipping bureau to keep it in touch with municipal affairs. Thus it knows what is happening daily in the cities of the State. If the Common Council of a city meets on a certain night to discuss sewage disposal, the Bureau soon knows of it, and, without waiting for a request for information, sends to the Council all it can get on the subject. Public markets, municipal slaughter-houses, sterilization of water, tax rates, salaries of all city officials, sewage disposal, city planning, lighting and water rates—these are only a few of the subjects handled.

In five cities having approximately the same lighting system and population it was found that the prices varied from $47.50 to $102 per cluster. As a result of the report of the Bureau, the city officials, when it is time to renew the contract, will be able to talk intelligently with the lighting company.

Municipal housecleaning is one of the most perplexing and expensive problems confronting American cities. The Bureau has already issued two comprehensive reports on the problem, dealing with the methods and cost of collecting and disposing of ashes and garbage. Two reports describe the various systems in vogue in American cities, the experiences of the municipalities with them, and original data secured from the fifty largest cities in the United States and all the municipalities in New York State.

Here are some of the troubles of a certain city official that have been submitted to the Bureau. He says their charter limits them to the amount of money they can raise by taxes in one year and spend. The taxes have been raised and the money contracted to be expended. There was a flood and several streets were washed out, and a number of their bridges need repairing—and they have no money. How can they get it? What is the experience of other cities? This is the sort of question that is put to this Bureau of Municipal Information.

The cry for municipal reform in the United States is a familiar one, and there is still need for reformatory efforts. This Bureau, however, believes that real reformation comes with knowledge; and its object is perhaps most tersely expressed by the motto which stands at the head of its literature: "Not to Reform, but to Inform."

UNCLE SAM—TRAPPER

One of the greatest trappers in the world recently sold his 1914 catch of furs. He had thousands of pelts. The war has made America the fur market as well as the money market of the world; and this catch of skins, instead of being shipped to London, was sold in St. Louis at the Funsten Fur Exchange. The white fox skins brought the astonishing average price of $24.50. The blue fox skins sold at an average price of $114.47 each—the highest price ever known. And

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the sum received for 137 silver fox pelts was almost beyond belief. One set of two of these skins brought $2,610. The trapper who took all these skins is well known to us all. His name is Uncle Sam. Some of his furs are shown in a picture on another page.

In his capacity as a trapper Uncle Sam has to guard the seals and sea otter in the northwestern seas, in compliance with the international sealing agreement of 1911, and protect the seals, otter, and beaver of Alaska, for the benefit of which animals a closed season has been established. Also Uncle Sam has to care for the natives of the Pribylov Islands, where he has a game preserve all his own. It is here that Uncle Sam gets most of his furs, although he seizes a good many that have been taken illegally in Alaska proper.

Under Uncle Sam's direction the Pribylov natives are allowed to kill 4,500 seals annually for food. But Uncle Sam takes all the pelts himself. Thus he removes the temptation to practice an illegal fur trade. As another precaution he has branded thousands of seals, which visitors may see swimming in the waters of the sea or basking on the rocks. These seals are branded when they are babies, in order that the seal herders may know when they return to the islands as yearlings after their first winter migration. This branding system became necessary because it was charged that many of the seals slaughtered were female yearlings. Uncle Sam wants to have only the useless males killed off.

Strangely enough, the growth of the seal herd has brought disaster to the fox herd, in which Uncle Sam is also interested. When pelagic sealing, or killing in the open sea, was allowed and seal mothers were slaughtered, their babies died for lack of nourishment, and the dead bodies, cast up on the sands, supported the foxes. Now that there are no dead seals the foxes go hungry. So Uncle Sam must feed them. All the waste and offal from the seals slaughtered for food is kept in pits for the foxes; and salted fish and tons of whale meat are brought to the islands for fox food. The very distinguished Government commission that visited the islands to determine on methods of administration recommended that seals be slaughtered for fox food, and that the meat, like corn for cattle, be kept in silos.

As another step in the direction of providing fresh meat (salt meat tends to make the foxes mangy), Uncle Sam, in 1911, started a reindeer herd on each of the two islands. By 1914 these herds had increased one hundred and twenty per cent. It is estimated that the islands contain enough reindeer moss and other native food to support 1,200 of these animals. The herds are now so thriving that hereafter surplus males will be killed for food. The natives as well as the foxes will rejoice at this, for every ounce of food, fuel, clothing, and medicines used on the islands must be brought by steamboat across two thousand miles of sea.

The United States is said by experts to have become the world's fur center in place of London; one result is that for the first time it is now possible to make the seal leathers here, as furriers are now willing and able to undertake the seal tanning and preparing processes.

JOHN MASEFIELD

John Masefield, whose portrait appears on another page, has come to America to lecture on English Poetry and English Poets, fresh from his experiences with a hospital unit at the Dardanelles.

English poetry mirrors the spirit of England, he thinks. "All art is intensely national. English poetry reflects the nation's personality. Like the English climate, it is companionable. The English poets are not remote. They mingle with the crowd. They are not masters of men's brains, but companions of their hearts." At least the old English poets were that way, believes Masefield. But since the "new learning" of Elizabethan times most of the English poets have been "a few talking to a few." Poetry, which Keats said should be the friend of man, has only occasionally reached the masses. Such rare poetry, Masefield declares, is Gray's "Elegy in a Country Churchyard," which he calls "a burst of religious feeling for England."

"I like to feel that English soldiers repeat snatches of that poem to themselves on their way to death, as I've often heard them do in the past year."

"The intellectual revolution led by Blake and Wordsworth failed to bridge the gap between the intellectual few and the masses. The shepherds of Grasmere did not read Wordsworth. . . . After the time of Blake and Wordsworth there grew up the large intelligent middle class in England. Tennyson is the typical satisfier of their demand for poetry. He had a kind of easy saneness, but was not easily kindled to passion. Browning

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and Swinburne revolted against the literature of the middle class. It is still too early to judge them, but one has the feeling that their subjects come too much out of books, paintings, and from what they've read in newspapers.

"At present and for some years the mind of England will be occupied with other things than poetry. There will probably be years of war, then years of misery after the war, then, at last, years of re-creation. The new song that will then arise will be more glorious than the old. When that time comes, it is my hope to be alive and young enough to know it."

We, too, hope that John Masefield will be alive then and will contribute his mature voice to that new burst of song. No poet to-day sings more clearly of the real England. No poet is singing more directly to his people than Masefield. Few have sung more understandingly of this war and the spirit of England than the author of "August, 1914."

"How still this quiet cornfield is to-night!
By an intenser glow the evening falls,
Bringing, not darkness, but a deeper light;
Among the stooks a partridge covey calls.
. . . . . .
These homes, this valley spread below me here,
The rooks, the tilted stacks, the beasts in pen,
Have been the heartfelt things, past-speaking dear
To unknown generations of dead men,

Who, century after century, held these farms,
And, looking out to watch the changing sky,
Heard, as we hear, the rumors and alarms
Of war at hand and danger pressing nigh.

And knew, as we know, that the message meant
The breaking off of ties, the loss of friends,
Death, like a miser getting in his rent,
And no new stones laid where the trackway ends.

The harvest not yet won, the empty bin,
The friendly horses taken from the stalls,
The fallow on the hill not yet brought in,
The cracks unplastered in the leaking walls.

Yet heard the news, and went discouraged home,
And brooded by the fire with heavy mind,
With such dumb loving of the Berkshire loam
As breaks the dumb hearts of the English kind,

Then sadly rose and left the well-loved Downs,
And so by ship to sea, and knew no more
The fields of home, the byres, the market towns,
Nor the dear outline of the English shore,

But knew the misery of the soaking trench,
The freezing in the rigging, the despair
In the revolting second of the wrench
When the blind soul is flung upon the air,
And died (uncouthly, most) in foreign lands
For some idea but dimly understood
Of an English city never built by hands
Which love of England prompted and made good."

FORESTRY

The thirty-fifth annual meeting of the American Forestry Association has just taken place. This year's meeting was at Boston and was marked by the retirement as President of Dr. Henry S. Drinker, President of Lehigh University, and the election of Mr. Charles Lathrop Pack, of Lakewood, New Jersey, the well-known forestry expert, long a vital power in the Association. In his presidential address Mr. Pack called attention to certain things which surely should be brought before the American people at this time.

We do not always realize that in time of war we should prepare for peace, and especially at this time. In other words, we must mobilize our country's industrial resources. After the war industrial competition will be more far-reaching than ever. For us there will be victory or defeat in exact proportion to our preparedness. In this the forests and forest products will necessarily play a large part. A treeless country or a country which abuses its timber resources as we do, justly asserted Mr. Pack, cannot expect in world competition to continue with economic success.

While war is perhaps the most powerful instrument of destroying industries as well as individuals, taxation comes next. Our forest taxation is unscientific. It is imposed annually, while revenue with which to meet it is deferred. Such taxation inevitably hastens the cutting and marketing of the trees. There must be some return on the capital invested. Timber lands are not given an even chance with other properties. As Mr. Pack showed, the crop of the farmer is taxed when ready for the market, and no agricultural crop is taxed more than once. But the crop of timber is taxed each year until cut. Farmers' crops mature annually; the crop of the timber-owner matures once in many years.

Wastage of our natural resources should be prevented whether wastage comes from war or from taxation or from simple recklessness. But in consideration of the forests there is one factor which we are glad to note was mentioned in the presidential address,

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and that is that the American forester is a man who has the æsthetic sense. The tree has ever been the symbol of life, strength, beauty. We cannot continue to look day after day upon trees without their beauty being reflected in our lives, making us healthier, happier, and better. Thus the destruction of trees means the removal or decrease of a natural resource, not only from a utilitarian standpoint, but also from the viewpoint of health, beauty, morality, and spirituality. There is indeed, as Mr. Pack concluded, no compensation for such a loss.

"THE CLEANEST BIG CITY IN THE WORLD"

As a result of the administration of New York City's Police Department by Arthur Woods there has been an astonishing change in moral conditions. This fact has been established by the investigation of an endowed body known as the Bureau of Social Hygiene. In the words of Raymond B. Fosdick, an authority on police matters, New York City has become, in respect to vice, "the cleanest big city in the world."

Mr. Fosdick has not only visited the largest cities in this country, but important cities in Europe, in the course of his investigations of police conditions. He has been Commissioner of Accounts in New York City. His recent article in The Outlook (the issue for November 3, 1915) on "Liberty in Germany" was an example of the thoughtfulness and discrimination as well as the human interest which he brings to bear on his investigation. Another article, on "Liberty in America," which will be published in an early issue of The Outlook, supplements the former article and likewise illustrates his broad mental background.

The Bureau of Social Hygiene, of which Mr. Fosdick is a member, and on whose behalf he has been making his police investigation, reports that between 1912 and 1915 the number of prostitutes in New York was reduced by over seventy per cent. In an interview in the New York "Times," Mr. Fosdick was asked how he accounted for this great decrease. And he answered, "Arthur Woods."

Other Police Commissioners of New York City have brought to their office honesty and ability, but the present Commissioner, Arthur Woods, has the distinction of having served as a Deputy Commissioner. The knowledge of police conditions and police administration which he brought thus to his office other Commissioners had to acquire after they entered upon their duties. It is not surprising that the knowledge which was acquired in this way by one Commissioner after another served little purpose when it is recalled that New York has had nine Commissioners in thirteen years.

Contrast this with the experience of London, which in the course of eighty-five years has had only five Commissioners. Sir Edward Henry, the present head of Scotland Yard, London, was first an assistant magistrate and then a magistrate in the Indian Civil Service, then Police Commissioner of Bengal, then Police Inspector of the Southern District of India. Then he was called upon to reorganize the civil police systems of Ladysmith and Pretoria. "After that," Mr. Fosdick is quoted as saying, "he was sufficiently seasoned for a place in Scotland Yard as Assistant Commissioner. When he was finally made head of the Department, he had forty-five years of police experience. Of course, Woods's two years and a half under Bingham make a small showing as compared with the record of Sir Edward Henry, but it is so very much better than nothing that it accounts in large measure for the success Woods has had. . . . If it could be known that Woods or a man like him were to be Commissioner for, say, twenty years, with greater freedom of administration than the law now allows, New York would advance a very long way on the road to having an ideal department."

Mr. Fosdick's explanation of the reason for the reduction of vice in New York is that it has suffered as any other business would suffer by being cut off from publicity, aggressiveness, and advertising.

As the Bureau of Social Hygiene in its report says, "collusion between exploiters of vice and officials in the Police Department has ceased. . . . New York possesses a police administration absolutely honest at the top." To Commissioner Woods's leadership the police force itself has responded.

If this gain is to be made permanent, such an administration as Arthur Woods is giving to the Police Department of New York must have the support of the people of the city.

THE NATIONAL ARCHIVES

The recent fire in one of the departments in Washington calls renewed attention to the need for a proper building to house administrative, historical, and other National archives.

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So far as we know, the papers in the Library of Congress are the only documents in the National Capital stored in really fire-proof receptacles. A number of other buildings are popularly regarded as fire-proof, but their papers are in destructible receptacles. In the Treasury Department papers are stored in attic and cellar in wooden cases. Documents are also stored in the dozen more or less inflammable buildings which have been rented by various departments. Invaluable documents, such as the original copies of state papers like the Declaration of Independence (which, by the way, is now carefully preserved), ought to be kept safe from casual destruction by fire. Authenticated copies might be kept in any place where convenience dictates, but the originals ought to be guarded most carefully. There is, moreover, no department of the Washington Government, we believe, where a student can consult the archives of that particular department effectively, for there is no department in which all of them are available even for administrative purposes.

This lack of concentration makes it hard for the student. Hence it is no surprise to read Professor Taussig's words at one of the recent meetings in Washington: "No nation can retain its self-respect, no nation can have a proper point of view about itself and its future, if it does not preserve and honor the records of its past."

We Americans pay all too little attention to the discovery and treatment of the material which forms the sources of historical writing. London, with its great Record Office; Paris, with its École des Chartes, in which archivists are trained for the State service; Berlin, with its new Imperial Archives Building, and other capitals, shame us. Twenty years ago Congress was asked to build a storehouse for the National archives, and this request has been strongly supported by the American Historical Association, but the matter has hung fire. When we realize that not only the ordinary Governmental records, but such precious papers as those bearing the signatures of George Washington and Benjamin Franklin, are stored in unsafe structures, it is surely time for Congress to assert the self-respect of the American people. It should pass the bill introduced during his term of office by Senator Root, by which we shall have both a commission on archives and a depository for archives where they may be concentrated and preserved.

A NATIONAL TARIFF COMMISSION

The Tariff Commission League, with headquarters in Chicago, is carrying on a National propaganda in favor of the establishment of a permanent non-partisan Tariff Commission with broad powers. The fundamental idea is to take political and selfish interests out of tariff-making and to put tariff legislation on a scientific and efficient basis. The League reports results which show that public sentiment is very largely in favor of this idea.

That the present method of enacting tariff bills is chaotic, inefficient, and detrimental to sound business is known to every man whose work brings him into any kind of connection with American tariff laws, whether he be an importer, a manufacturer, a merchant, or a member of Congress. On the whole, we believe that the various Congresses which have passed tariff laws have been actuated by a desire to protect the general interests of the country. But it is impossible during an overcrowded session for any legislative body, however sincere its motives, to get at all the facts upon which a just and reasonable tariff should be based.

Historically the Republican party has been the party of high tariffs and the Democratic party the party of low tariffs. The result has been that, while the country has never wholly abandoned the principle of protection since the days of Alexander Hamilton, it has vacillated from a high tariff to a low tariff and from a low tariff to a high tariff as the country has swung from one party to the other in its National elections. When the Republican party has imposed upon the country an unjustly high tariff, the average business man has sought to remedy the difficulty by electing a Democratic Congress. When the Democratic Congress, in its despair over the problem, creates a tariff act which slashes everything right and left without much regard to financial and industrial needs, the pendulum swings back again and a high tariff Congress is elected.

The first definite attempt to remedy this absurd political and industrial situation was made under the Presidency of Mr. Taft. At the opening of his Administration he was full of enthusiasm for scientific tariff-making. During the early struggles of the Payne-Aldrich Bill he expressed the hope that a National board might prepare a tariff encyclopædia which should be to American in-

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dustry what the United States Pharmacopœia is to medicine—that is to say, a compendium of all the facts of imports and exports and a scientific statement of the reaction of these facts upon American business. But the apathy of the public and the pressure of special interests upon Congress and of political ambitions upon himself were so great that he abandoned his task. Since then, however, public opinion has developed, and even Congress has come to recognize that if we are to have industrial efficiency in this country to cope with the vast commercial problems that will be thrust upon us at the close of the European war, something must be done to put a stop to tariff-tinkering.

The situation to-day, then, is this. The sentiment of the country is for some kind of a tariff commission. The Administration at Washington recognizes the value of the principle, but has not yet declared itself clearly as to the form. President Wilson is believed to be still considering whether the facts necessary for a scientific revision of the tariff cannot be obtained by a bureau in one of the present departments of the Government. The only definite, and we believe the only effective, plan has been proposed by the Tariff Commission League. It has drafted a bill for the consideration of the country and of Congress. Under this bill, if enacted, a National Tariff Commission of seven members would be created, the members to be appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate. Each member would receive a salary of $12,000 annually, and while serving should "not actively engage in any other business, vocation, or employment." The Commission would have the power to subpœna witnesses to take testimony and to administer oaths. It would make its investigations when directed to do so by the President or by Congress, or on its own volition. Its special function would be to investigate the cost of production at home and abroad of all articles affected by the tariff, "with special reference to the prices paid for domestic and foreign labor, the hours of service, and the standard of living." In other words, such a Commission would obtain all the necessary facts by careful study, and place them at the disposal of the tariff-making power.

We shall not here undertake to point out the business advantages of such a system. The literature of the Tariff Commission League, the officers and directors of which include some of the best known and most efficient business men of this country, makes these advantages very clear. What we do wish to point out is that the establishment of such a National Tariff Commission would fit harmoniously into the very structure of our Government as it is now being rapidly reframed.

The age of individualistic competition has gone, never to return. Democracy in America, if it is to be industrially efficient, must choose between government by Socialism and government by Regulation. Government by Socialism is the ownership and operation by the government of all the tools of industry. Government by Regulation is the employment of private initiative and enterprise, working with the incentive of private profit, under a system by which the government regulates the profit for the benefit of all the people. This system of Government Regulation has already been put into partial operation by the establishment of the Inter-State Commerce Commission and the Federal Reserve Board. The people must now see to it that the system is completed by the creation of two new Commissions of equal power and responsibility.

American commerce and industry may be divided into four great departments:

1. Foreign Commerce.
2. The domestic production and selling of commodities.
3. The transportation of such commodities.
4. The financial operations underlying the first three.

These four departments cover the whole range of American industrial activity, and should be regulated by four great commissions: a National Tariff Commission for our foreign commerce, a National Trade Commission for our domestic commerce, a National Inter-State Commerce Commission for the regulation of all inter-State transportation, and a National Banking Commission for the regulation of financial operations.

The latter two are already in existence. Under the new currency law the Federal Reserve Board is actually a National Banking Commission possessing great powers for the regulation of all the financial transactions of the United States.

The Inter-State Commerce Commission and its authority over transportation have already been established. Its power and influence have steadily grown, and will, with some modifications and improvements in the form and functions of the Commission, continue to grow.

We have an embyronic National Trade

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Commission. It does not at present possess sufficient scope and authority, but it may easily be developed to hold the same relation to domestic commerce that the Inter-State Commerce Commission does to transportation or the Federal Reserve Board to banking.

To complete this structure of Government by Regulation we need a National Tariff Commission to deal with foreign commerce. The Tariff Commission might not only furnish the technical information which Congress needs in framing tariff laws, and make original recommendations of tariff changes, but it might be charged with the duty of appraisal and of settling tariff controversies with foreign nations.

All four Commissions—the National Tariff Commission, the National Trade Commission, the Inter-State Commerce Commission, and the National Banking Commission—should be clothed with such powers and composed of such membership as to make them, not mere bureaucratic groups, but great, distinct, and influential departments of the Government. It is conceivable that they might thus attain the respect and command the confidence which are given to the Supreme Court of the United States; but to do this they must be endowed with power, responsibility, and intellectual capacity. And we repeat that these four Commissions are necessary to the structure of a National system of Government by Regulation. The only alternative to such a system is State Socialism.

PROTESTS NOT FOR SALE

Washington despatches intimate that there is a tacit bargain between America and Germany. Germany's part of the bargain, so the rumor runs, is permanently to abandon her practice of torpedoing helpless merchantmen so far as that jeopardizes the lives of Americans on board transatlantic liners, and possibly to curtail even further her sea war against private citizens. In return for this the American Government, it is understood, will be expected, and is even now preparing, to bring great pressure upon Great Britain for the lifting or modification of the so-called blockade of Germany. We do not report these rumors with any intent of giving them credence. They are significant mainly because the very circulation of them tends to affect American public opinion. This is one way by which public opinion can be ascertained. A suggestion of this sort going out from Washington elicits comment; and the nature of that comment helps to indicate what Americans think. As a contribution to that public opinion we here record our opinion that such a bargain, tacit or not, would be ignoble.

In slaughtering non-combatants at sea Germany has been exercising no right. If Germany should pledge herself to end such slaughter, she would be yielding no right. For undertaking to abandon inhumane practices she is entitled to no return. In private life, the man who pays a reward to a criminal as an inducement for that criminal to stop committing a crime against him is said to pay blackmail. To act as Germany's agent in securing a lightening of the blockade against her as a reward for the discontinuance of practices which were not only an outrage upon us but upon all humanity would be tantamount to paying blackmail. We cannot believe that the Administration contemplates doing anything of the sort.

What the United States does with reference to the British interference with neutral trade will, we must believe, be done, not in the interest of Germany, but for the protection of the rights of America and of all neutrals and the maintenance of the law of nations. To have any protest that we make to Great Britain tainted with even a suspicion that it is done to buy immunity from piratical practices would be to deprive that protest of all of its value.

OUR BOYS

While Mr. Thomas Mott Osborne by his dramatic sharing of the prisoner's fare is compelling the attention of a usually apathetic public to the cruel folly with which, in their name, their prisoners are being treated, hundreds of eager men and women, in less dramatic but not less effective fashion, are working not only to prevent the possible making of criminals out of any of our boys, but—and this is the main end—to provide all boys with the opportunity and to inspire them with the desire to live normal, healthful, and useful lives. On the same evening in which between three and four thousand citizens of New York City gathered in Carnegie Hall to do honor to Mr. Osborne's name and express appreciation of his public service to the State, several hundred boys gathered—a few of them in the Boys' Club

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in Avenue A, many of them in the street outside—to receive from the President of the United States a message of greeting and good wishes. A few days before, these boys had received from an ex-President, Theodore Roosevelt, a message which they adopted as their motto, "Never be neutral between right and wrong." The immediate occasion of both these messages was an endeavor which the friends of the Boys' Club Association of New York City are making to raise half a million dollars to provide more club accommodations for the boys already gathered out of the streets in clubs, and for a great many more who easily could be gathered, provided buildings can be erected to house them and men can be found ready and competent to befriend them. The Boys' Club Association consists of two clubs—the Boys' Club and the Newsboys' Home Club. The latter is now broadening the scope of its work, taking in not alone newsboys, but all other boys as well. In order to avoid duplication of work with the Boys' Club it is changing its location, and will hereafter be known as "The Boys' Club of the West Side." It has an active membership of some 1,900 boys; the Boys' Club has a membership of some 3,000 boys.

It cannot be too emphatically stated, however, that something more than a club-house is needed to make a club. For a club-house without a wisely sympathetic leader to breathe into it the breath of life can no more minister to boys than a pulpit without a preacher can minister to a congregation, or a pen without a writer can minister to readers, or a set of musical instruments without musicians can minister to an audience. In New York City those who are willing to give themselves to the boys in personal service have already been found; it is now for New York City to decide whether those who are willing to give money can also be found.

This attempt to raise half a million dollars for the boys of New York City calls attention to a need and a movement as wide as the country. Surprising as the statement may seem to some of our readers, there are boys in our villages as well as in our cities and larger towns. If the enticements to vice are fewer and less seductive in the village than in the city, there are also fewer enticements to virtue. In most of our large towns the Young Men's Christian Association is making some provision for the boys, and, though it has now begun to study the problem for the country and the village, it has not yet found adequate solution. The institutional church is rarely to be seen in a village, but every village has its group of boys on the street corners of an evening, and the stories which circulate in these spontaneous street-corner clubs are no purer in the village than in the town. The village has its gang no less than the town, and if the gang is not as audaciously criminal, it is not less a school of vice.

It is perfectly possible with small equipment or with none at all to meet these conditions. We know a village club of boys, none of whom are wealthy, which, starting with no other club equipment than in winter the parlor and in summer the porch of a village home, has borrowed money enough to build a modest gymnasium, has raised by dues, by entertainments, and by renting the gymnasium to other organizations, enough money to pay the interest promptly and to begin reducing the principal, has made cigarette-smoking on the streets by the boys unfashionable, has worked in sympathy with all the churches, both Roman Catholic and Protestant, but not in co-operation with any, and has earned the good will of the entire community. One of its members has acquired shorthand and is succeeding as a private secretary, another has a position in the wireless telegraphic service, others are pursuing studies in special schools or in college with definite life plans in view. And not the least of the services which this club has rendered to the village is the change it has wrought, of which the village is scarcely conscious, in the relationship between their elders and the village boys. There are some people who still regard such club work as not religious because it does not teach religion. The very last prophetic word of the Old Testament is the promise: "He shall turn the heart of the fathers to the children, and the heart of the children to the fathers." That is what this club work is doing, and that is the work of religion according to Old Testament prophecy.

What has been done in this village is being done in thousands of villages in this country, and can be done in any village where there is any one, either man or woman—in some respects a wise woman is the better of the two—who can be a leader of boys because he or she is a companion of the boys, has their point of view, understands their ideas of honor, appreciates their ideals, and from that vantage-point can lead them step by step out to a larger view and up to a higher ideal.

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MEXICO—NOT WAR BUT PACIFICATION

There has been talk of war with Mexico. Such talk is idle and mischievous.

Even if we had a quarrel with the Mexican nation, there is no government in Mexico worthy the name with which the Government of the United States could go to war. But this country has no quarrel with the Mexican nation. The wrongs which call for redress have not been committed by Mexico as a nation, but by groups of marauders led by political adventurers and bandits. The offenders constitute a very small fraction of the Mexican people. It is with these marauders that our quarrel lies. It is they, not the Mexicans as a whole, who have slaughtered American citizens and destroyed American property. And these bands of banditti who have outraged Americans and defied the United States have in even larger measure brought disaster, suffering, and the evils of anarchy upon the great body of Mexicans themselves. So far from being adversaries of the Mexicans, we Americans are on their side. In this turmoil the United States and Mexico have common enemies. What the occasion calls for is action, not against Mexico, but on behalf of Mexico against Mexico's enemies and ours.

It is action that is called for—not words. For more than three years now the situation has been going from bad to worse. What has reigned, and is now reigning, in Mexico, is not civil war but anarchy. There is no power in Mexico for self-recuperation. Carranza and his group have not the force, even if they had the will, to establish order and justice. The massacre of Americans there within the past few days is proof that life and property in Mexico are no safer now than they were before the so-called First Chief was recognized as the head of an alleged *de facto* government. Even if Carranza succeeds in pursuing and capturing the particular miscreants who perpetrated the murder of the Watson party, he has given no evidence of being able to do away with the brigandage and the anarchy out of which other miscreants will arise to perpetrate other crimes. For the control of such conditions words are of no effect. It is time, it has long since been time, for armed intervention.

The Government of the United States ought, at the earliest possible moment, to send troops into Mexico. It ought not to send volunteers; it ought not even to permit volunteers to go in military force into Mexico. It ought to send a body or bodies of trained regular soldiers. If American forces were occupying Vera Cruz now—as they ought to be, since they were once sent there—it would be a comparatively easy matter to extend the authority of the United States to other parts of Mexico. Such a point or such points as American military authorities might select for the purpose should now be occupied by American troops. When our forces were in Vera Cruz and their peaceable and constructive purposes made plain, they were welcomed by the Mexicans and recognized as friends and aids. Were our forces to occupy Mexican points anew, under wise direction, they would be welcomed again.

Under the authority and guidance of these forces, Mexicans themselves should be formed into a constabulary force which should be the active force for pacification. If, in the suppression of disorder and pursuit of bandits, Mexicans are killed, they will—if such a plan is followed—be killed, not by the bullets of invaders, but by bullets from the guns of Mexicans. Such a Mexican constabulary, though directed and controlled by American military authorities, should wear the uniform, not of the American soldier, but of their own organization. They should be paid and supported by the American Government. All experience shows that if such occupation were wisely directed by men who understood their task and the people with whom they were called upon to deal, Mexican men in ample number would flock to the standard of that constabulary and the Mexican people would welcome the protection.

This is the method that was adopted in Cuba. Under General Leonard Wood, Cubans of character and ability were chosen to act in suppressing disorder in that island and in establishing orderly government. In substance this is no new experiment. Our army and navy have proved what they can do; and in Mexico they can do it again.

If, in this intervention to protect American lives and property, the lives and property of Europeans for whom this country is responsible, and the lives and property of Mexicans themselves, Carranza will co-operate, so much the better. If he will not, he then must be counted among the enemies of Mexico.

Such intervention would lay the foundation for education, justice, and peace, and would make of Mexico a neighbor and friend.

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TWO MORE LETTERS

A FEW weeks ago we published a letter from the Rev. F. W. C. Meyer, of Rochester University, who stopped his subscription to The Outlook on account of its attitude in support of the Allies in the European war, together with a reply by the President of the Outlook Company, which stated again the attitude of The Outlook. This correspondence has brought in a large number of letters, by far the greater part of them sustaining the course of The Outlook. It is a significant fact that several of these letters of approval are from American citizens of German birth. All the letters have deeply interested us and we wish we could reprint them all, but space forbids, and we must content ourselves by giving the two which follow. We do not print the names of the writers because we have not their definite permission to do so, but we may say that their names are distinctly German in origin.

Milwaukee, Wisconsin,
January 11, 1916.

Mr. Lawrence F. Abbott,
President The Outlook Company,
New York:

Dear Sir—In again renewing my subscription I wish to say that I have been a subscriber to The Outlook for about twenty years, and, although I was born and educated in Germany and a few years ago spent some time in visiting my friends and relatives in the Fatherland, I fully agree with you in the stand you take in this world war as to Germany and the Allies and as expressed in your letter in The Outlook of December 29 to the Rev. Friedrich W. C. Meyer.

I am proud of being a German and have the highest regard for German efficiency, love of country, and industriousness, but dislike its military system and its *Machtpolitik*, and I believe that the sooner this military power is broken the better it will be for the rest of mankind.

I love the Fatherland as much as any German does, but in showing my appreciation of the land of my birth I do not forget that I am an American citizen first.

Denver, Colorado,
January 5, 1916.

Mr. Lawrence F. Abbott,
President The Outlook Company,
New York:

Dear Sir—I have just read your letter to the Rev. Friedrich W. C. Meyer, of Rochester, New York, published in The Outlook of December 29, 1915, and I feel impelled to assure you of my hearty approval of your attitude towards Germany. My ancestors were Germans, but not of the Prussian type, and yet I do not understand why one who has lived in a free country like this for nearly fifty years should be offended at a criticism of a despotic Government like Germany that has wantonly murdered American women and children, and gloated over the act. I do not take it that you censure the German people, but the Government, for these offenses. Why Germans should defend a Government they have fled from to escape its rigor is more than I can comprehend.

No matter what the German people are, they have no voice in the Government, and they are to be pitied rather than blamed for the acts of barbarism committed by the German Government.

The language of The Outlook is none too strong in its condemnation of the submarine outrages, and its demands that our Government should do something more than send perfumed notes to Germany and Austria are timely and to the point. I attribute the disrespect of Germany and Austria to the President's shiftless Mexican policy.

If this supineness continues, we will be forced into war to regain the respect of the world. I like the vigorous editorials of The Outlook on the misconduct of the war. Sherman may have been right in his definition of war, but that is no excuse for the world dropping back into savagery, nor does it justify the murder of helpless women and children.

My faith is not shattered in the reliability and equity of your editorial judgment even if the Rev. Mr. Meyer has lost his faith. May The Outlook live long and prosper is my wish.

An American journalist, whose official position gives him exceptional opportunities for forming a sound judgment regarding public opinion throughout the United States on controversial questions, recently said to one of the staff of The Outlook that he believed that the great majority of American citizens of German birth and ancestry in the United States were not in sympathy, either in act or in thought, with the pro-German propaganda which has been carried on in the United States by a small group of pro-Germans with such disastrous results to themselves and the cause they represent. The foregoing letters and others of a similar tenor which we have received confirm this judgment. We believe the great majority of American citizens of German ancestry are really Americans and have the best interests of their new country at heart.

A striking illustration of the possibility of this fact has been given to us by a Canadian

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reader of The Outlook who informs us that in one community in Canada, in which there are a very large number of citizens of German birth and ancestry, many of these naturalized Canadians bearing German names have enlisted in Canadian regiments and are now fighting for the British Empire in the trenches.

We do not and never shall believe in the epigrammatic saying ascribed to Decatur: "My country! May she ever be right, but, right or wrong, my country!" Political and intellectual freedom and human justice are always superior to national rights. We hope that if the United States of America ever espouses the doctrine that might makes right we shall have the same courage and heart to oppose her which are manifested by our two correspondents in their opposition to the mistaken course of their Fatherland.

RELIEF FOR THE SUFFERING BELGIANS

IN our pictorial record of current events elsewhere in this issue we produce in facsimile a full-page advertisement which was widely published in the New York daily newspapers last week, because it so graphically states the situation with regard to suffering in Belgium and the just demands which are made upon the humanitarian feelings of Americans to alleviate that suffering. While this appeal is made by the New York City branch of the Belgian Relief Commission, we hope it will be responded to by generous readers all over the country.

In connection with this appeal of the Belgian Relief Commission, we wish to call attention to another organized effort to supply good cheer to the Belgians. There are about two hundred thousand Belgian soldiers stubbornly holding on to the last few miles of their country. These brave men, living in the snow, cold, ice, and mud of the trenches, find a legitimate comfort in tobacco. Under nerve-racking shell fire, in the anxious moments before an attack, in the long, monotonous hours of inactivity in the trenches, even in moments of greatest pain when wounded, tobacco is a great solace to the soldier. The soldiers of the Belgian army receive no tobacco with their rations because of the poverty of the Government; they have little or no money of their own; and as their compatriots are either destitute or are being protected in England, France, or Holland, or are under German domination on Belgian soil, they can receive no parcels from home and friends. In this situation prominent Belgian refugees living in London approached the Over-Seas Club, a British institution which has organized various funds for the benefit of British soldiers and sailors all over the world. The Club was at first reluctant to undertake the work of raising a tobacco fund, feeling that it was outside its sphere and that it already had enough duties in hand. But the Belgian Committee made a second appeal to the Over-Seas Club with the indorsement of King Albert and Cardinal Mercier, who wrote the following letters. The letter from King Albert is in French, and we translate it. The letter of Cardinal Mercier was written in English, and its charm is increased by some of its peculiarities of idiom. The originals of both have been submitted to our inspection.

KING ALBERT'S LETTER

Madame:

I have just received the letter in which you ask me to give my patronage to the laudable work of the Over-Seas Club, which is about to raise a fund in the United States for the purpose of furnishing tobacco to the Belgian soldiers. I am most happy to have my name associated with those who thus devote themselves to the well-being and comfort of our brave defenders. Please accept, madame, an expression of my grateful esteem.

La Panne, August 25, 1915. ALBERT.

CARDINAL MERCIER'S LETTER

Archevêché de Malines, October 31, 1915.

Dear Gentlemen:

If Belgium could bear so far with courage the terrible trial which divine providence sends us, it has been because of the brotherly help of the generous American people.

With an exquisite delicacy, the whole American Nation come to us, taking care of all our needs, engaging our least wishes.

And see here, once more that generosity appears as a charming present to our valiant soldiers who struggle for the defense of our rights and our liberty.

The remembrance of so many good turns will remain forever printed in the memory of our people, and we all look with eagerness to the

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day when we shall be able to prove to England and the States our deep gratitude.

Once more, dear gentlemen, I give you the assurance of our feelings of admiration and deep thankfulness.

† D. J. CARDINAL MERCIER,
Archbishop of Malines.

To the Count van der Stegen,
Over-Seas Club, London.

Even those who do not smoke can hardly fail to be moved by this appeal from two of the finest and most distinguished personalities that have emerged from the horrors of the European war.

The responsibility of bringing this appeal to the American people has been laid on Mr. Francis R. Jones, of London, who is associated with Count Alexandre van der Stegen de Schrieck, one of the Belgians whom the Germans have dispossessed of home and property, and Mr. E. M. Barrow, an American journalist who has been at work for many years in Europe. An American organization has been formed with the title of the "Belgian Soldiers' Tobacco Fund." The Hon. Joseph H. Choate has consented to be President, and Messrs. J. P. Morgan & Co. have agreed to act as depositaries. The headquarters of this organization are in the Flatiron Building, New York City, where further information will be readily afforded. Checks should be made payable to the Belgian Soldiers' Tobacco Fund and forwarded to Messrs. J. P. Morgan & Co., 23 Wall Street, New York City.

THREE GERMAN SOCIALISTS ON THE WAR

The Outlook has received from a responsible source the following account of a personal interview with three leading German Socialists—Karl Liebknecht, Karl Kautsky, and Eduard Bernstein.

Karl Liebknecht (son of Wilhelm Liebknecht, the revolutionist of 1848, who suffered two years' imprisonment for his criticism of Bismarck, and who at the time of his death, in 1900, was editor of "Vorwärts") bears a name already well known to American readers. In 1907 he was sentenced to eighteen months in prison for high treason because of his book "Militarismus und Antimilitarismus." In 1908 he became a member of the Prussian House of Deputies, and in 1912 he was elected to the Reichstag, where he was soon recognized as a leader among the Socialist Deputies. In 1913 his charges in the Reichstag led to the revelations of the scandals which touched so closely the Imperial Government and the house of Krupp.

Karl Kautsky was born at Prague, in Austria, in 1855, and educated at the Gymnasium and University of Vienna. He has lived in Zurich, Stuttgart, London, and Berlin. He is the leader of those who accept the teachings of Karl Marx as the Bible of social revelation.

Eduard Bernstein was born in Berlin in 1850. From 1881 to 1890 he was editor of the "Sozialdemokrat." His views on government made it desirable for him to withdraw to London in 1888; but after the publication of his criticism of the doctrines of Karl Marx he was permitted to return to Germany. The fundamental tenets of Bernstein's creed have been the democratization of the German state and the establishment of social reform.—THE EDITORS.

LIEBKNECHT

I REMEMBER him chiefly as a dark round face, semicircled by the sort of black hair that comes from a haircloth mattress; not a keen face at first glance, not the face of a man of action apparently; a sort of professorial, cloistered, comfortable face. You felt like talking over the college courses you should take in the next semester instead of talking over the affairs of the Empire.

Then he began to speak, leaning forward over the little table in his private office in the Reichstag. His voice was very musical and very gentle. He spoke German in a way to soften all its angles, but what he said contradicted the delicate tone in which he said it.

"It is a war of lies." He looked me

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straight in the eye. "Every nation concerned lies. The German newspapers lie as a matter of course. When the war began, the Socialists were fully aware that it was due entirely to the capitalistic incentive of Austria-Hungary. We held dozens of protest meetings here in Berlin. 'Vorwärts' published stout editorials. We had demonstrations against the war. Then came the censorship. We could do, we could say, nothing."

"But why?" I asked. "Why, Herr Doktor, Americans expected you to do a great deal."

"You do not understand the power of the censorship," he said, quietly. "You Americans cannot imagine the awful power of the military. In one day, in one hour, we were cut off. Every man became like a separate cell in the body politic. Every man was isolated with his own thoughts, or else he was drowned in the flooding idea of the war. From the moment the censorship shut down there was no more exchange of ideas. Every thinking man in Germany became a mental prisoner."

"But what is the war for, Herr Doktor?"

"It is a war of conquest. Whatever its causes may have been, we know that the Imperial Government intends it to be a war of conquest. There are rich mines in France and Belgium. They will never be given back. The Government will do with them and with us just as it pleases.

"It has done as it pleases with all the German people. I am a member of the Reichstag. The Chancellor of the Empire sent an ultimatum to Belgium on August 2, 1914. That ultimatum was never reported to the Reichstag until August 5. The war budget was presented on August 4 and passed on August 5, with the concurrence of all the Socialists except fifteen. That is abominable duplicity on the part of the Government. Those fifteen Social-Democrats who voted against the war credits were the only real revolutionists. They were not for reconciliation with capitalism, but for fists.

"But they were helpless. The lying press was inflaming the people against our enemies —against the Russians and the French and the Belgians and the English. The German papers were flooded with stories of atrocities committed upon German soldiers which to my certain knowledge were afterwards disproved, but never publicly denied. The people were told that the Russians were barbarians, the French fools, the Belgians superstitious weaklings, and the English cowardly sneaks.

"The causes of the war were obscure. The Socialists really thought that Germany could not be responsible for such a catastrophe. Czarism was ostensibly the issue on which the war began, and it was on that issue that the Social-Democrat *bloc* voted the war credits on August 5. Nobody exactly understood the situation. The Socialists had lost their press at one stroke, for the censorship was absolute. And so they were like sheep without a shepherd.

"Now there are two Socialist parties in Germany. The split has come. Hereafter you in America must understand that when 'German Socialism' speaks in your press it will speak with two voices. It will contradict itself. It will be pro-war and anti-war. Only by remembering this can you understand the great internal struggle which must come."

"How do you feel about Belgium?" I questioned.

Liebknecht's voice continued in the same even, professorial tone. "I was in Stuttgart," he said, "at the time that von der Goltz was appointed Governor-General of Belgium. I tried to get up a protest meeting against annexation. The military government would not permit so much as a public poster advertising the meeting. Indeed, the Government forbade meetings of any sort for any cause.

"But you can see that the newspapers are preparing the nation for the final annexation of Belgium. 'We have bought this province with our blood,' they argue, without thinking of the Belgian blood. 'We have paid for it with our lives. The Belgians,' they say, 'are little more than brutes. They are completely dominated by their clergy, they are ignorant and superstitious and backward, they do not deserve to possess their own country.' All such nonsense as that passes current for wisdom in Germany to-day."

"But what have you Socialists really done?" I objected.

"Very little," he said. "'Vorwärts' has been closed up several times. 'Vorwärts' has had to agree that it will not mention the class war. Here is another example of what has taken place. My wife is a Russian, and the war had barely started when my house was searched, my private papers were seized and carted off, and the sanctity of my whole establishment was violated on the pretext that my wife might be a spy. And, in spite of the

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fact that I am a member of the Reichstag, not one word of this affair ever got into a Berlin newspaper."

"But, Herr Doktor Liebknecht," I said, "you Socialists seem to us Americans to have lost a great opportunity. Frankly, we cannot understand your attitude as a party. We think you have been—to put it very frankly—cowardly."

"You think we have been cowards," he repeated, gravely, never taking his eyes from my face. "Well, perhaps we have been. Remember, the German Social-Democrats own property worth more than twenty million marks. They own printing-presses and halls and theaters and the like. You know property makes men cautious. Perhaps our possessions have made us conservative. Perhaps the German Socialists do not dare risk all."

KAUTSKY AND BERNSTEIN

Kautsky I found on the top floor of a Berlin apartment-house, in a little den crammed with books and pleasantly odorous of old bindings and printer's ink. His face was like a cameo, white and sharp and hard. Its expression scarcely changed throughout our talk. Only the dark eyes seemed really alive. His white hair and white beard looked rather like silken adornments for the cameo face; they seemed to have no relation to the personality of the old man.

I was irritated with Kautsky, irritated with his cautiousness and his bookishness and his air of letting the world go about its business. That may have been because Bernstein was with him, a keen, obviously Jewish "intellectual," black as Mephisto, who seemed anxious that Kautsky should tell me nothing, and whose every statement seemed to come through double lines of internal censors before it reached his lips. A copy of the little New York radical magazine "The Masses" lay on Kautsky's table, and I took its presence as a good omen. I was mistaken.

"Did you Socialists make no effort to stop the war?" I asked.

"The party did not," said Kautsky. "We saw long ago, we German Social-Democrats, that we should be powerless in the event of war. The French Socialists thought that they could stop war. They talked of general strikes and immense movements for peace. We German Socialists knew better. We had our meetings of protest. There were great Socialistic demonstrations Unter den Linden just before Germany declared war on Russia. We had stirring protests in 'Vorwärts.' We did our best to prevent the war, but we were powerless the instant martial law was proclaimed. Now we can do nothing. 'Vorwärts' has been suspended. We have no press, we have no forum. We are heart and soul against a war of conquest, but we cannot even protest against the annexation of Belgium."

"But why didn't you do something in the Reichstag?" I asked.

"What could we do?" said Bernstein, speaking slowly and gravely in English. "The Kaiser does not ask permission of the Reichstag to make war. He asks only for money to carry on war. When the time comes to make peace, he will make peace without consulting the Reichstag, and the terms of peace will be those he arranges."

"And so you are not going to do anything until after peace is made?" I asked, again turning to Kautsky.

"We can do nothing," he repeated. "We are leaders without followers. There are two million German Socialists in the army. That means that half our members are gone. No Socialist in Germany knows what that half of our party is thinking, no Socialist can be sure what those two millions think of this war. We cannot talk to them, we cannot even send them *Feldpostbriefe*. They are cut off, isolated, every man of them. Perhaps they may talk together by twos or threes, but each man is thinking alone. What do they think? That is the great question for German Socialists to answer."

I was growing more and more irritated. This atmosphere of caution and inaction seemed to me unworthy a man calling himself a Socialist and an internationalist. I blurted out a rank criticism or two. Kautsky went on, prompted occasionally by the watchful Bernstein.

"You are an outsider," he said. "The picture is not so black as you may think. For years we have been living under the Socialist code—laws framed by the German Government to prevent us meeting or reading or even thinking. We have had long, hard schooling. We have learned how to convey information to each other secretly. Intelligent Socialists are not being misled by the silence of 'Vorwärts.' Some are confused, no doubt, but not all, and 'Vorwärts' will do all it can. We have learned how to read between the lines."

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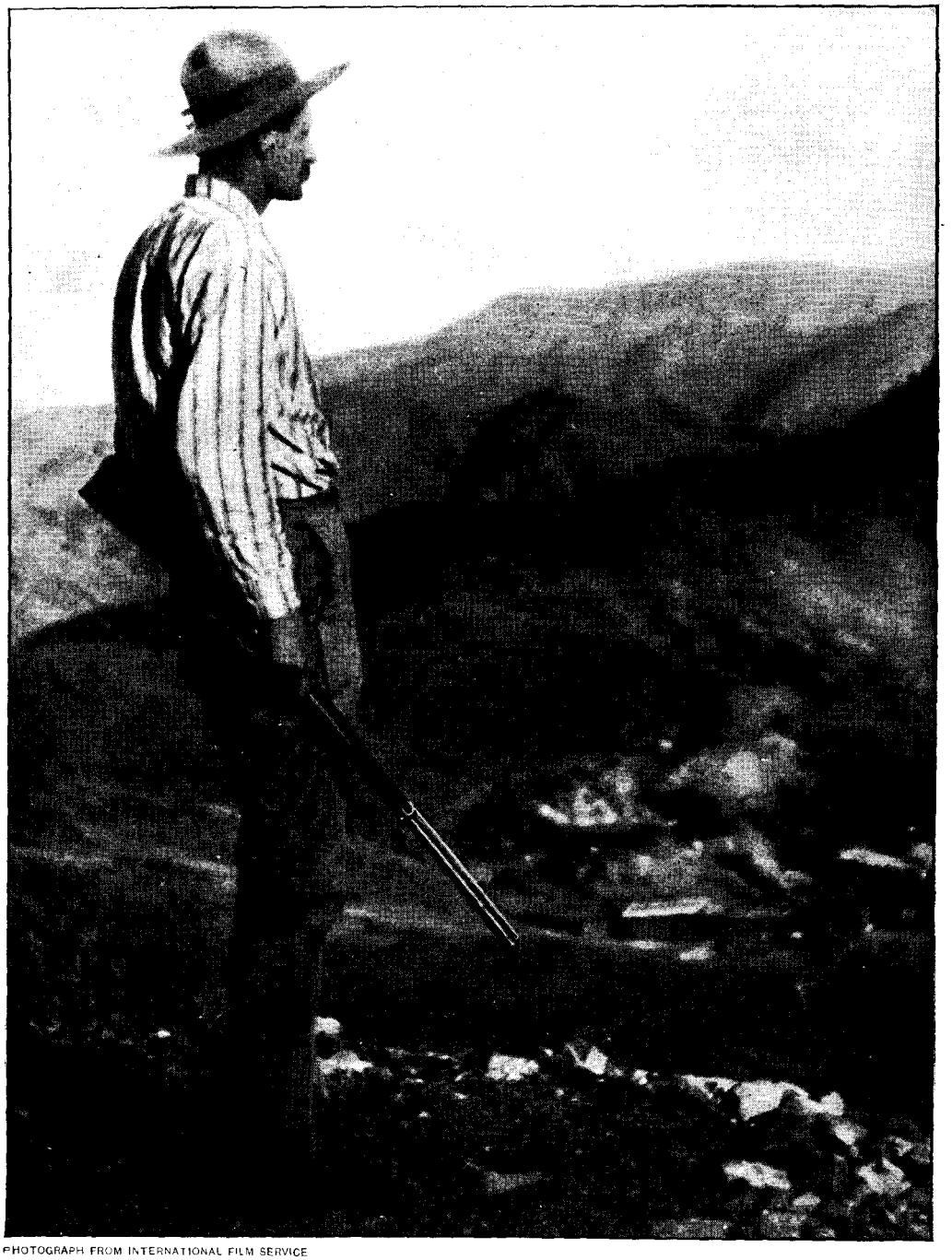
Current Events Pictorially Treated



PHOTOGRAPH FROM INTERNATIONAL FILM SERVICE

C. R. WATSON, ONE OF THE AMERICANS ASSASSINATED BY MEXICAN BANDITS

The lawless conditions in Mexico oblige Americans living there to arm themselves for protection. This picture vividly illustrates what we said last week—that "the policy of disarmament is not a peace policy; its inevitable result is the massacre of the defenseless, and consequent private war." This photograph was taken a short time before the recent tragedy, while Mr. Watson was inspecting the property of the Cusihuiriachic Mining Company, of whose mines he was general manager. See editorial comment

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THE STRIKE AT EAST YOUNGSTOWN, OHIO—SOME OF ITS RESULTS

This scene of destruction might be used by labor leaders as an argument in favor of the organization of labor, for it is asserted by some of them that the strikers and others responsible for the rioting and looting at East Youngstown were not organized into a union and were not affiliated with any union organization. "The American Federation of Labor," said its representative at Youngstown, "does not countenance violence and will have nothing to do with this strike." This ruin, which resembles the devastation wrought by the invaders of Belgium, is, as we pointed out last week, the consequence of private war. See further comment on editorial pages in this issue

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TWO COLLEGE STUDENTS WHO HAVE THE REAL PIONEER SPIRIT

These young men, Frank Chappelle and Roland B. McDuff, members of the Freshman class of the Pennsylvania State College, built with their own hands, unassisted, the "dormitory" in front of which they are seen, and in which they expect to live during the four years of their college course. The house contains two rooms; it was built from odd pieces of material picked up here and there, and the work was done after study hours. The cabin stands on land lent by the college president. By living here, and doing their own cooking and washing, these zealous students expect to get their college education despite limited resources

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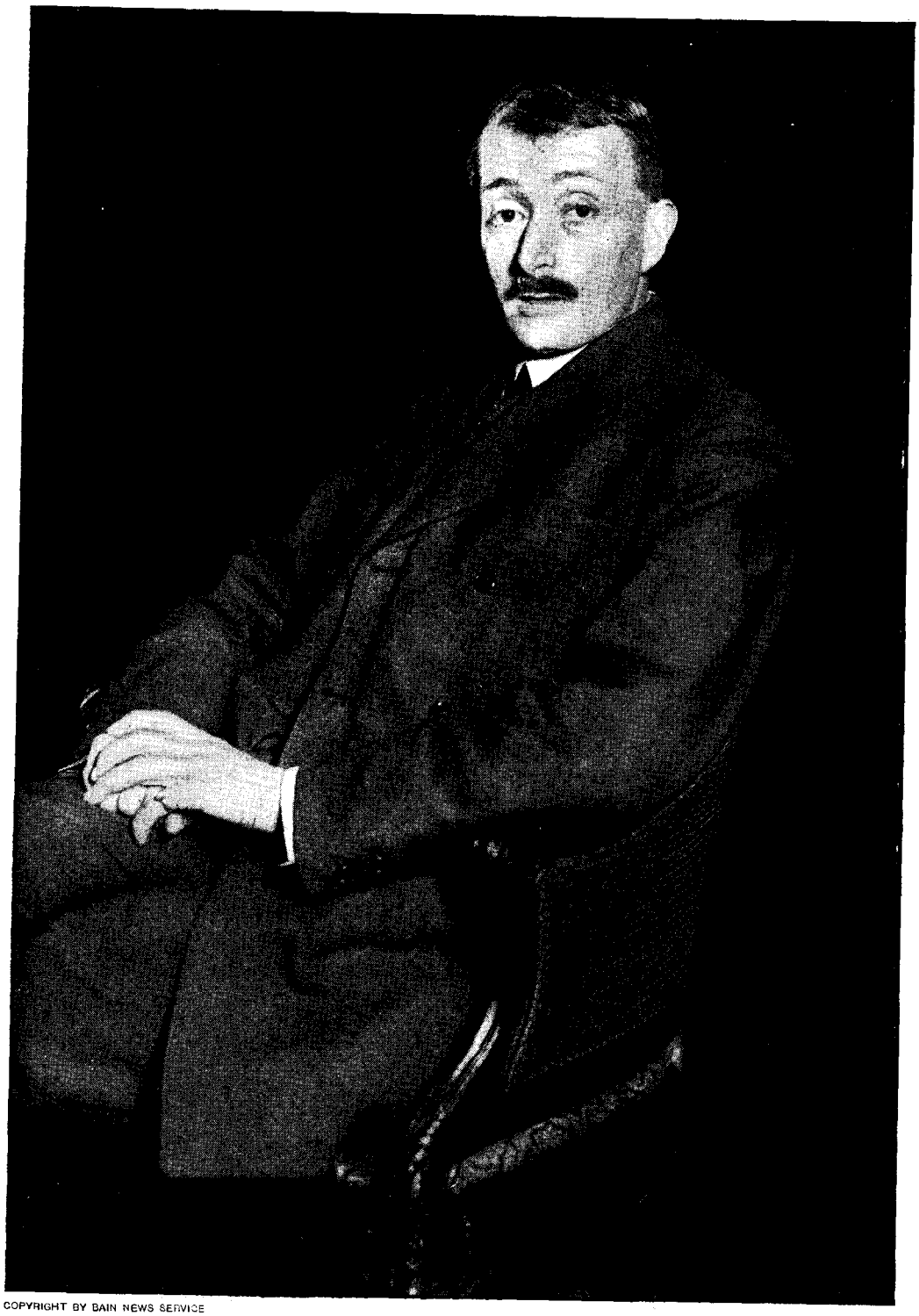

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JOHN MASEFIELD, THE WELL-KNOWN ENGLISH POET, AUTHOR, AND LECTURER

The distinguished English poet whose picture appears above is now in America for a lecture tour. He last visited New York twenty-one years ago, when for a time he saved himself from starvation by working as a general factotum in a saloon. His varied experiences then and his wanderings as a sailor have enriched the poems and plays which have given him an assured place in English literature. He has recently been in the Dardanelles as a Red Cross nurse, but will not lecture on his war experiences

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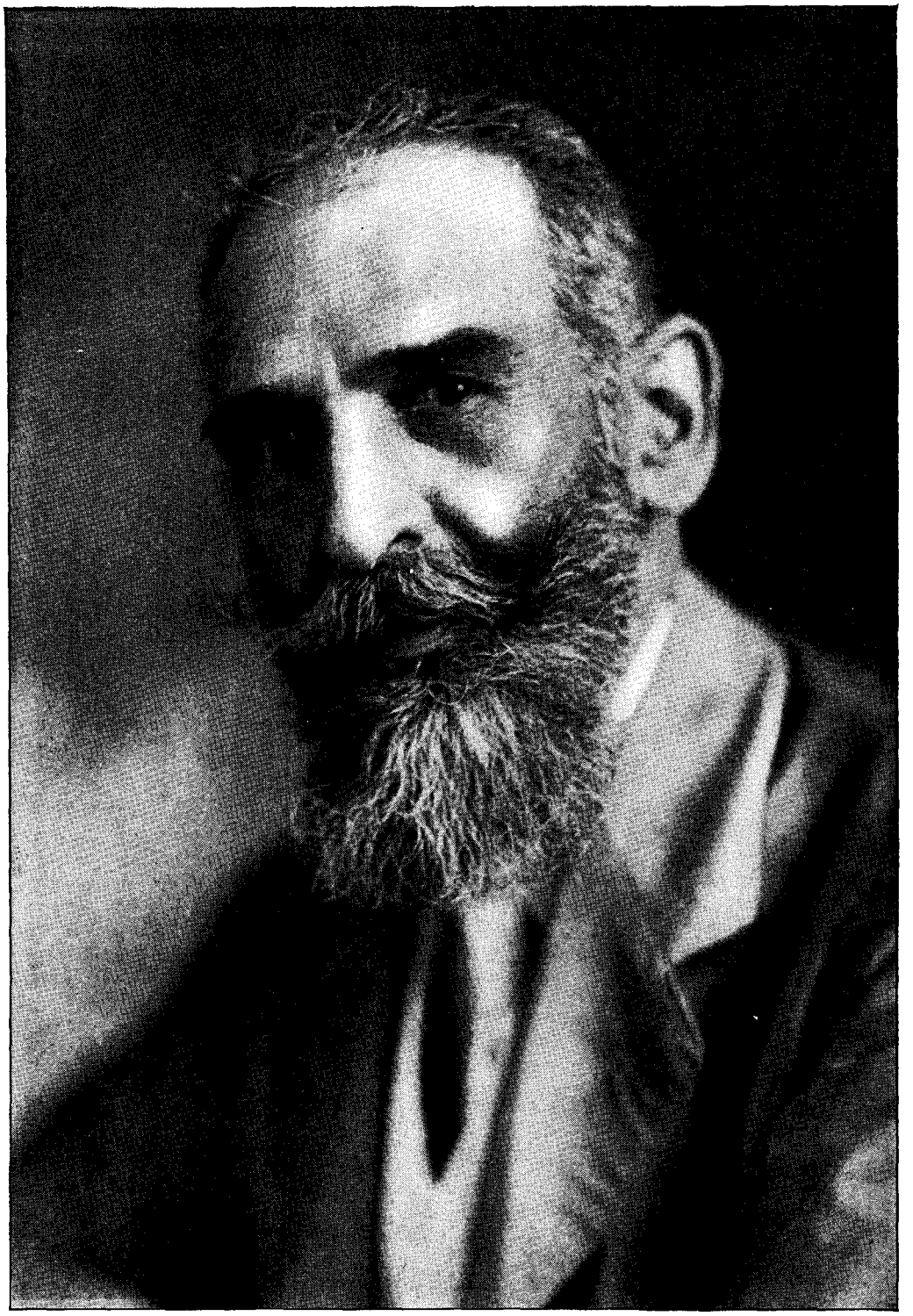

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SEÑOR DON EDUARDO SUAREZ-MUJICA, AMBASSADOR FROM CHILE TO THE UNITED STATES

Señor Suarez, who is just retiring from his Ambassadorship to take up other important work, was born in Chile in 1859; he has had a distinguished career as a diplomat. For an appreciation of his services see editorial pages

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THE KINGDOM OF GRIEF!

A penny a day from every American will clothe the ragged women and children of Belgium and Northern France.

Think of it: One cent per head from the inhabitants of the United States means a million dollars daily *if* all of us did our share.

But that would mean calling upon the babe in arms and the cripple on crutches—the slum dweller and the backwoodsman—farmers and villagers and city folk—it would demand an organization, not only to carry the news of Belgium's plight, but to collect in Belgium and Northern France who are still destitute. Previous contributions seem stupendous until you consider the number of beneficiaries, and then you'll find what a short end the individual gets.

The Commission for Relief in Belgium at no time has been able to allow more than seven cents per day for man, woman, or child. (Imagine how luxuriously you could live upon 50c. a week!) And yet this miserable pittance has been received with great gratitude that you (whose notion of poverty has never included even the idea of a week of existence without shelter or provision) cannot possibly imagine.

Get this picture fixed in your mind and dwell upon it; whole communities, including families which fifteen months ago were dwelling in opulence, are without money, without clothes (except the horrible rags in which they stand) and without hope of survival, except through the prompt aid of America.

No other country can undertake the tremendous task.

The aged, the children, and the women will perish by the hundreds of thousands if we do not continue to clothe as well as feed them.

You surely don't want it on your conscience that for lack of a few dollars' worth of aid (with which one human being can, in that

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funds and do any number of other practically impossible things.

While all America must, in theory, provide for Belgium's destitute, a few Americans will, in actuality, have to do the work.

The burden of relief falls upon the big cities, where concentrated action is possible and where the daily press can bring the condition of these innocent sufferers of a World's War constantly to the notice of the community, until every one comprehends their dire straits and the pressing need.

In such instances as these, you, the average man and woman, are all too likely to assume that your co-operation is not vitally required,—that there will be enough assistance rendered without your individual aid, and, contrasting your means with the income of a multitude of richer men, will, in genuine sincerity, figure that a general call for aid is not specially directed at you.

But you probably have not stopped to think that the wealthy have already donated millions for relief, while the need continues and steadily grows more severe.

Don't think of the millions of dollars that have been raised, but think of the three millions war mangled kingdom, be kept alive) an old man or a young girl perish for want?

And yet it is not overstating the situation to say that your refusal to aid may mean such a tragedy for at least one person.

There are so many selfish and thoughtless among us—so many who won't or can't be reached, that every man convinced of Belgium's necessities must not only do all that lies within his power, but constitute himself a campaigner and appeal to his friend and acquaintance to do their best for the cause.

CLOTH MUST BE SENT TO MAKE WOMEN'S DRESSES.

CLOTH MUST BE SENT TO MAKE CHILDREN'S CLOTHES.

CLOTH MUST BE SENT TO MAKE MEN'S SUITS.

Here are people who can't help themselves; here is a land in which every family shares the heaviest cross that history knows.

Clothe them—*a little bit from every little purse!*

Three millions of voices are sobbing for aid—three millions of outcast old men and women and mothers of children are turning their faces to America in anguish.

Can't your soul hear the call from the Kingdom of Grief?

GIVE—In God's name, and—GIVE NOW.

Checks or money orders may be sent to Wm. C. Potter, Treasurer, Guaranty Trust Company. The following banks have agreed for convenience of contributors to accept checks or money orders (payable to Wm. C. Potter):—Corn Exchange Bank and branches, Guaranty Trust Company, Astor Trust Company, American Exchange National Bank, Chase National Bank, Mechanics and Metals National Bank, Mutual Bank.

Greater New York Committee of the Commission for Relief in Belgium.

SAMUEL W. FAIRCHILD, Chairman.
WM. C. POTTER, Treasurer.
J. F. BRESNAHAN, Secretary.
Equitable Building, New York.

FACSIMILE OF AN ADVERTISEMENT PUBLISHED IN NEW YORK DAILY PAPERS LAST WEEK APPEALING FOR HELP FOR THE BELGIANS. SEE EDITORIAL COMMENT

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REFUGEES LIVING IN A DESERTED BARRACKS WHICH, POOR SHELTER AS IT IS, THEY HAVE BEEN ORDERED TO LEAVE

REFUGEES FROM KURDISTAN CAMPED IN A POPLAR GROVE, WITHOUT SHELTER FOR THE WINTER

WAR'S FAR-FLUNG LINE OF MISERY

The pictures, which were sent to us by a valued correspondent, show refugees who have sought shelter in Salmas, Persia. They are Nestorian mountain dwellers who have fled from Turkey, and are among those who are being helped by the relief work of the American Committee for Armenian and Syrian Relief, 70 Fifth Avenue, New York

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DISTRIBUTING THE ARMLETS THAT ARE THE BADGE OF PATRIOTISM WORN BY THE RECRUITS

COLLECTING CAKE FOR WOUNDED SOLDIERS

A little girl in Bristol, Kathleen Massingham by name, makes her contribution to her country's cause through collecting cake for the wounded soldiers in the hospitals of Bristol, so that each invalid may have a cake for Sunday's tea. She usually collects over a hundred pounds of cake a week

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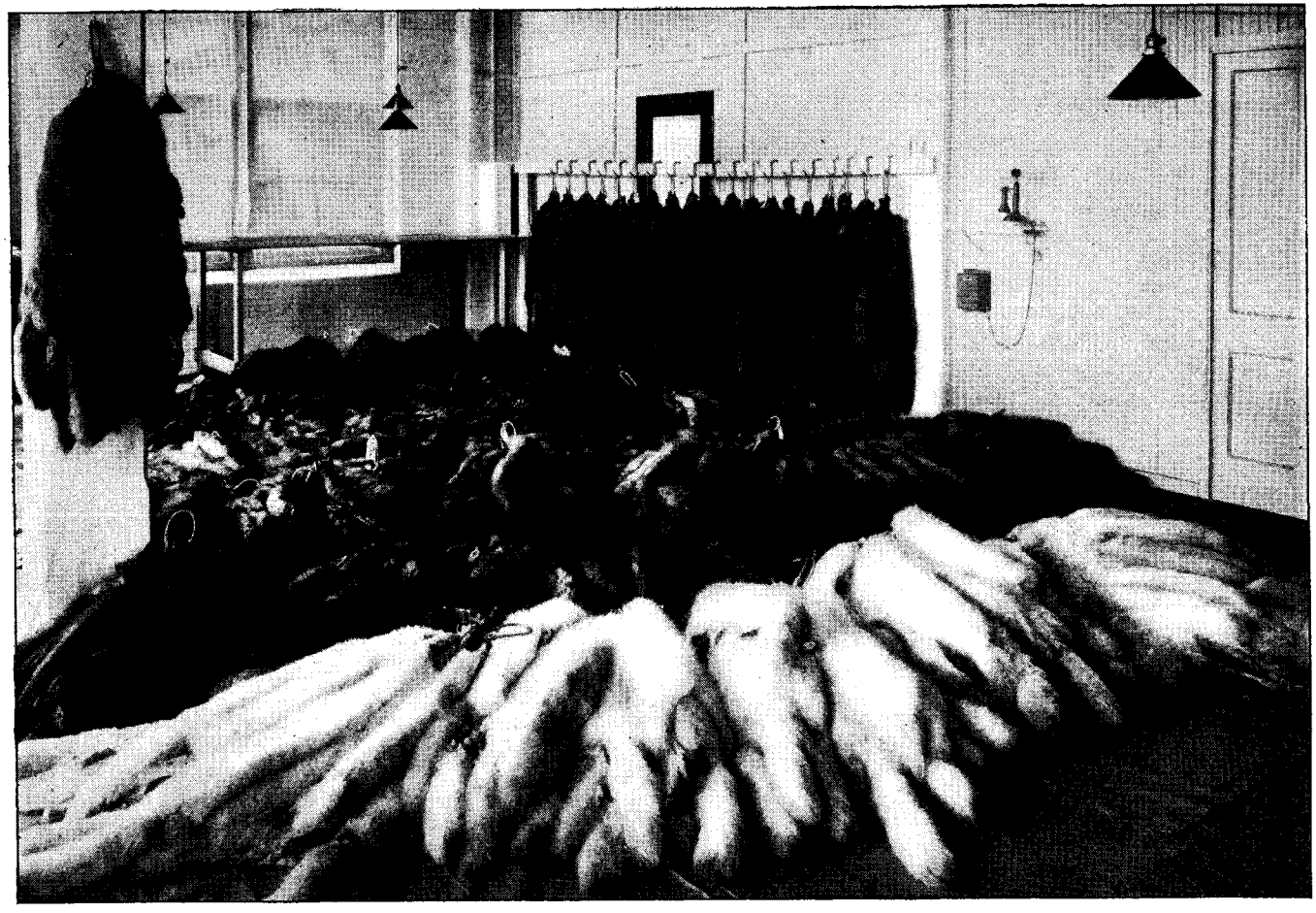

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THE UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT'S SALE OF FURS

The picture shows blue and white fox furs graded and bundled, ready to show to buyers, at the recent Government sale of furs at St. Louis. The blue fox skins sold at an average price of $114.47 each. For further details see in editorial pages the account of "Uncle Sam, Trapper"

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THE TROUBLE AT PANAMA

BY FELIX ORMAN

The author of this article, a staff correspondent of The Outlook, recently visited the Panama Canal Zone and interviewed a number of the Canal officials. Subsequently he obtained an important statement from General Goethals on the causes of the slides, excerpts from which are printed herewith. What General Goethals has to say on the overcoming of the Canal obstructions is, of course, authoritative. The illustrations, with one exception, are from photographs kindly furnished by General Goethals.— THE EDITORS.

ON the afternoon of September 20, 1915, Captain Hugh Rodman, then Marine Superintendent of the Panama Canal, escorted a small party, including the American Minister, Mr. William Jennings Price, and myself, on a trip along the border of the Canal to witness the newly begun work of clearing away the débris caused by the slide in Gaillard Cut which had occurred a short time before. Captain Hutchinson I. Cone, who since that time has succeeded the picturesque Captain Rodman, accompanied us.

Our party assembled at the Balboa station of the Panama Railroad, an attractive concrete structure, like most of the Government houses in this section of the Canal Zone. It commands a view of the impressive Administration Building, set like a Greek temple on the top of Balboa Heights, and of the beautiful wooded and residence-dotted hills in the distance. Within the shed stood several large gasoline motor coaches. In one of these we were to make our trip, but not in the large, gaudily painted one. This car, I learned, was known throughout the Canal Zone as the "Yellow Peril;" and in it General Goethals was wont to make flying trips across the isthmus with an unexpectedness that was sometimes disturbing.

We proceeded for several miles on a parallel with the Canal, running on the main track of the Panama Railroad. In every direction there were frequent views of the magnificent tropical scenery that matches in interest the engineering wonders of the Canal. Indeed, to many the great steel locks and chambers that lift huge vessels from the tide level of one ocean to that of another have less attraction than the towering masses of rich tropical vegetation that everywhere meet the eye. We stopped first at Darien, the Government wireless station, which is said to have the most powerful wireless equipment in the world, and while there the operator ticked out a message to the Eiffel Tower, Paris.

"The public would be startled," remarked the superintendent of the station, "if it knew of the amazing things that are being done here in wireless communication."

After our visit at Darien we proceeded to a point beyond Gaillard Cut, for miles traveling slowly as we watched the silent procession of tugs hauling flatboats loaded with rock and soil removed by dredges from the harassing slide at Zion Hill. Marooned in Gatun Lake were fourteen vessels, chiefly British, Dutch, and Norwegian. They were grouped at anchor, and stood in a sort of hopeless, spiritless way.

Before starting on this trip of inspection I had talked with many residents, workers, and travelers, and had not found any considerable optimism as to the early conquering of the Canal slides. Not a few observers predicted that fully seven years would pass before a permanent passage through the Canal could be guaranteed; they assumed that this length of time would be required to remove the soil on both sides of Gaillard Cut, whose pressure is responsible for the slipping of earth. In some cases a criticism expressed was to the effect that the observations of the French engineers had not been fully considered after the American engineers took over the Canal project, and that the American engineers had not made adequate investigations of soil conditions after assuming the work.

The engineers in the Canal Zone have defended themselves against this criticism in an emphatic manner, and there is slight reason for believing that there was any remissness on their part in making soil observations. The slides, as explained by General Goethals, were to be expected and were wholly unavoidable. General Goethals was not at Panama at the time of my visit, but since leaving the Canal Zone I have been in correspondence with him, and his views expressed herein were obtained by the laborious process of interviewing by letter. These statements

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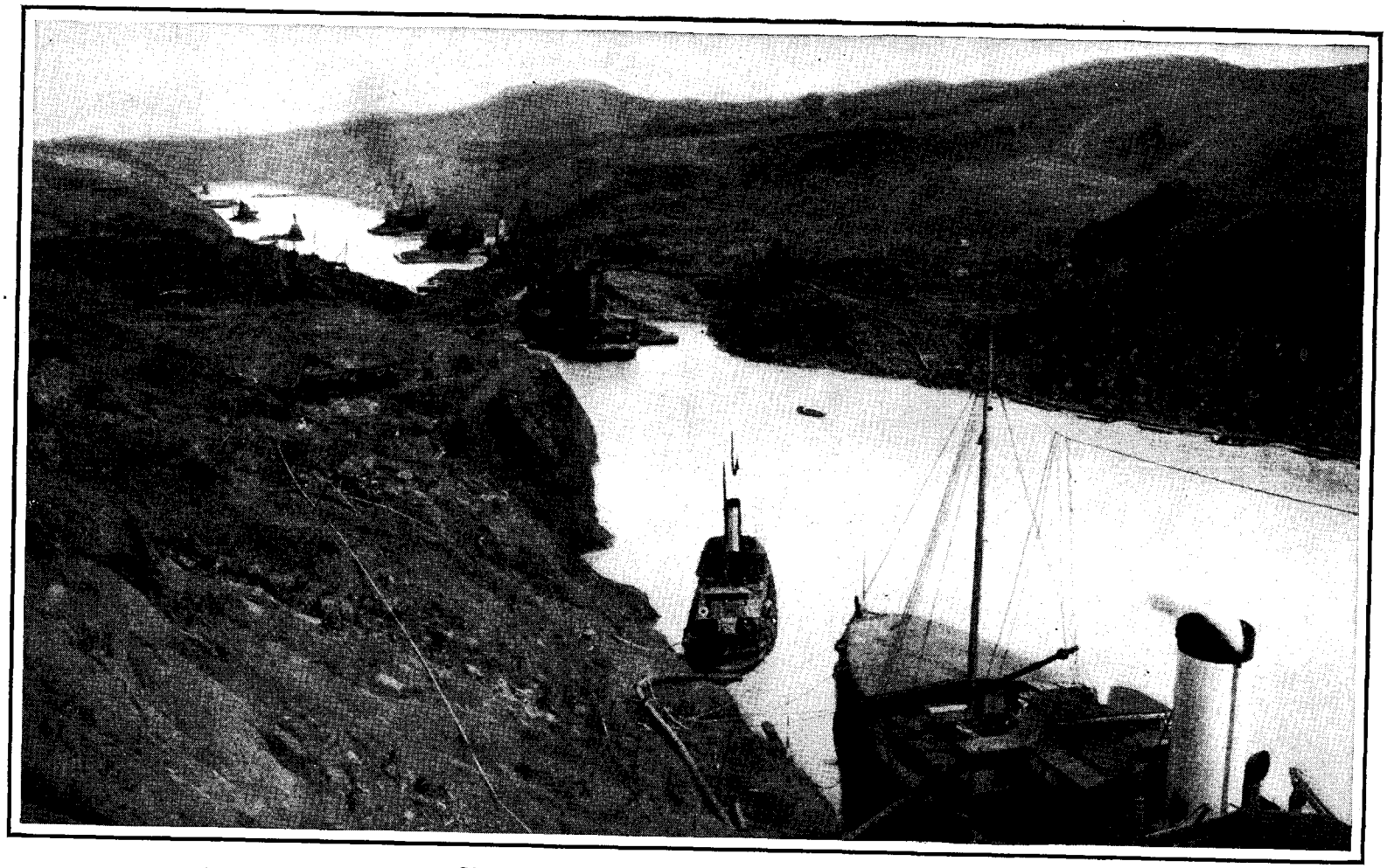

COMPLETE CLOSURE OF THE CANAL BY A SLIDE

The direction in which the moving earth is closing up the channel is from the right toward the dredging-machines that are engaged in removing the obstructions

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and the accompanying illustrations, with one exception, were sent to me by General Goethals with the understanding that they were to appear in The Outlook.

No definite promise is held out by General Goethals as to the time when the slides will have been entirely stopped; he states that at least seven million cubic yards of earth will have to be removed before this goal has been attained. "There are reasonable grounds," he adds, "for assuming that a channel through the obstructed area can be maintained." This hope of General Goethals apparently has been fulfilled, for a recent despatch from Panama states that the dredging forces had opened a channel through the Canal of sufficient depth to allow the passage of vessels of twenty feet draft. Discussing the various phases and causes of the slides, General Goethals says:

"The conclusion reached is that the only method of handling the slides on the two banks is to remove the material from the prism by dredges as it comes in. The breaks on the two banks are clearly defined, and, judging from experience with other slides and breaks, the limits of the movement have been reached. When the break occurred in October, 1914, and the subsequent breaking up of the west bank became evident, it was decided to augment the dredging fleet by another fifteen-yard dipper dredge and three one-thousand-cubic-yard barges, all of which are now in service, and the dredges are handling at the slide nearly one million cubic yards per month. . . .

"The length of the slides, which are directly opposite each other, is approximately 2,200 feet (the channel through which is navigable, with the exception of 600 feet); the banks are 300 to 350 feet above sea level on the east, and extend up to 480 feet above sea level on the west. The area of the territory affected on the east side covers eighty-one acres, and on the west side seventy-eight and five-tenths acres."

The sliding mass here described by General Goethals presented a chaotic scene when I saw it late in September. The great bulk of earth had rolled into the Canal to meet the island that had been forced up from the bottom by the tremendous pressure of the mounds of earth on both sides of the channel. "You could put on a pair of rubber boots and walk across the Canal," Captain Rodman said to me.

"Assuming that all material lying above planes," General Goethals continues in his statement, "extending from the outside limits of the bottom of the prism up to the limits of the breaks, will move into the cut, seven million cubic yards will have to be removed before the slides are entirely stopped. . . . It is at best only a guess. It must not be inferred from this that the Canal will be closed until this amount is dredged, for such is not the case; on the contrary, it is the intention to pass ships as soon as a channel is secured through the remaining six hundred feet, and there are reasonable grounds for assuming that a channel through the obstructed area can be maintained.

"It is certain that the troubles are due to the failure of underlying strata, because these were unable to bear the weights brought upon them. Under the circumstances it is difficult to understand the impression that has gained credence in some quarters that a sea-level canal would have avoided the difficulties encountered, since the cutting would have been through the same material, but at least eighty feet deeper.

"It is also certain that nothing can stop the movement now in progress until the angle of repose is reached for the materials under the conditions that exist, and that this can be reached only by removing the excess amount of material. If experience counts for aught, then that gained in the handling of the slides and the breaks that have occurred along the line of the Canal leaves no doubt that the means adopted and now in use will effect a cure in the slides that now close the Canal; furthermore, that when cured no further troubles need be anticipated from slides in this locality."

General Goethals explains the behavior of the various soils under varying conditions in the Canal Zone as very similar to experiments made with sand and other soil substances in being piled to create an angle of repose. The Canal slides described by him have occurred at points all along the line, from the lower end of Gatun Locks to the sea-level section south of Miraflores Locks, both in the building embankments and in the various excavations that were made.

"The slides," says General Goethals, "were encountered early in the construction of the Corozal and Gatun dams. In the former, due to the weak strata underlying the surface, there was caused a bulging up outside of the embankment, with a consequent settlement and displacement of the pile. The

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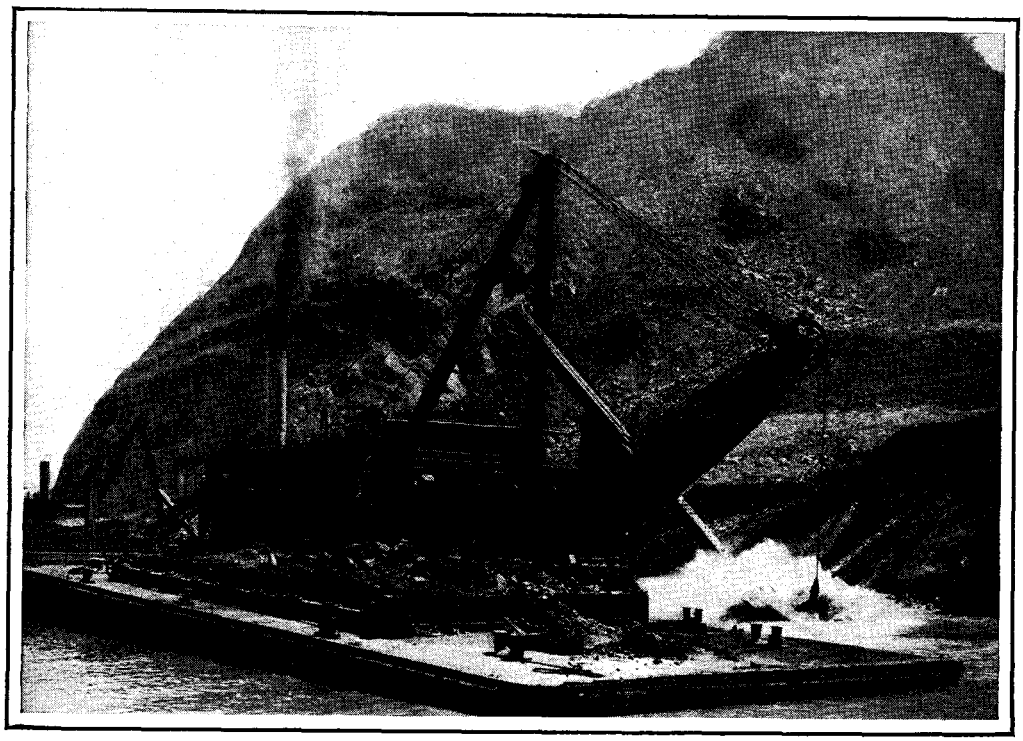
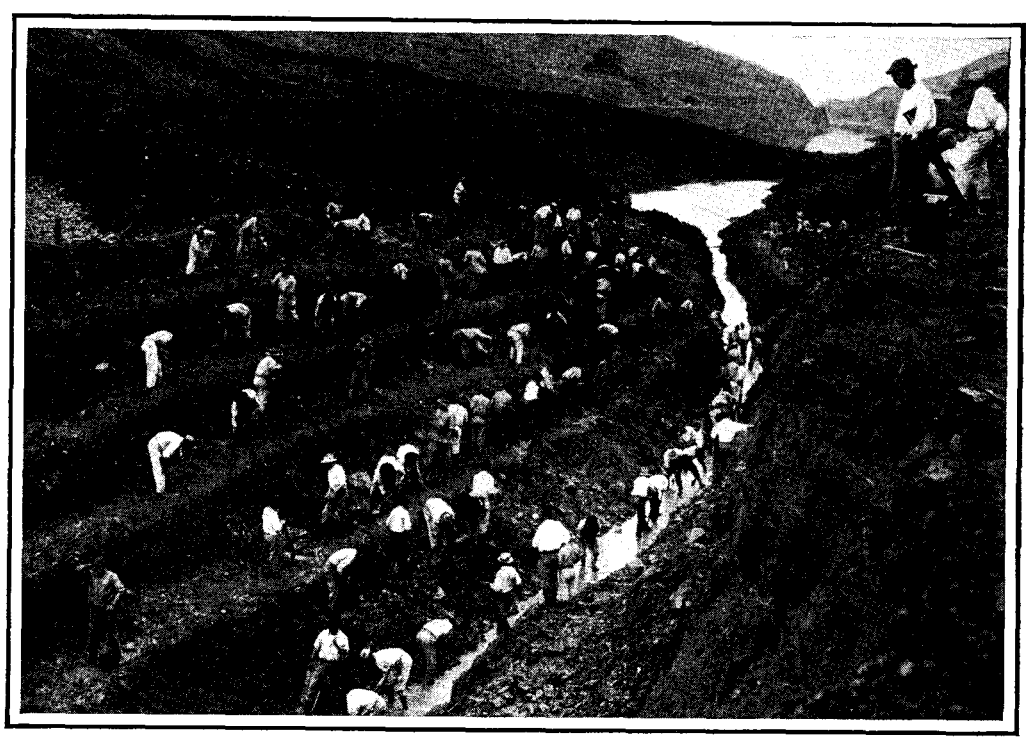


ROCK, LEFT UNSUPPORTED BY MATERIAL TAKEN OUT FROM CUCARACHA SLIDE, SLOUGHING OFF FROM GOLD HILL



TRYING TO EQUALIZE WATER ON BOTH SIDES OF CUCARACHA SLIDE

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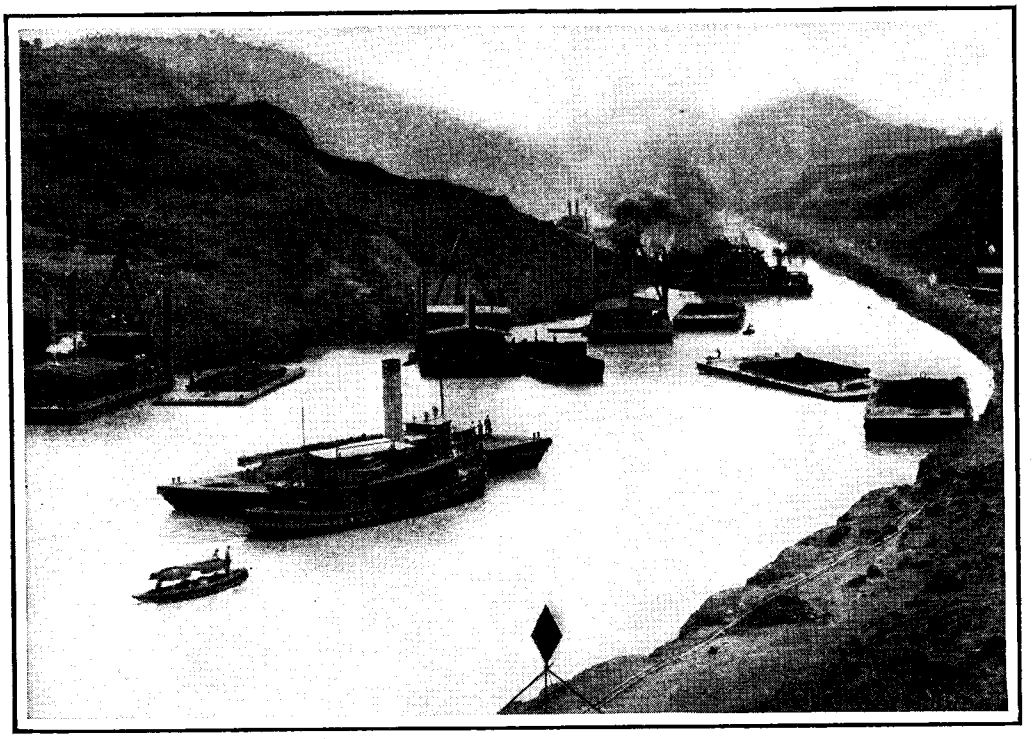
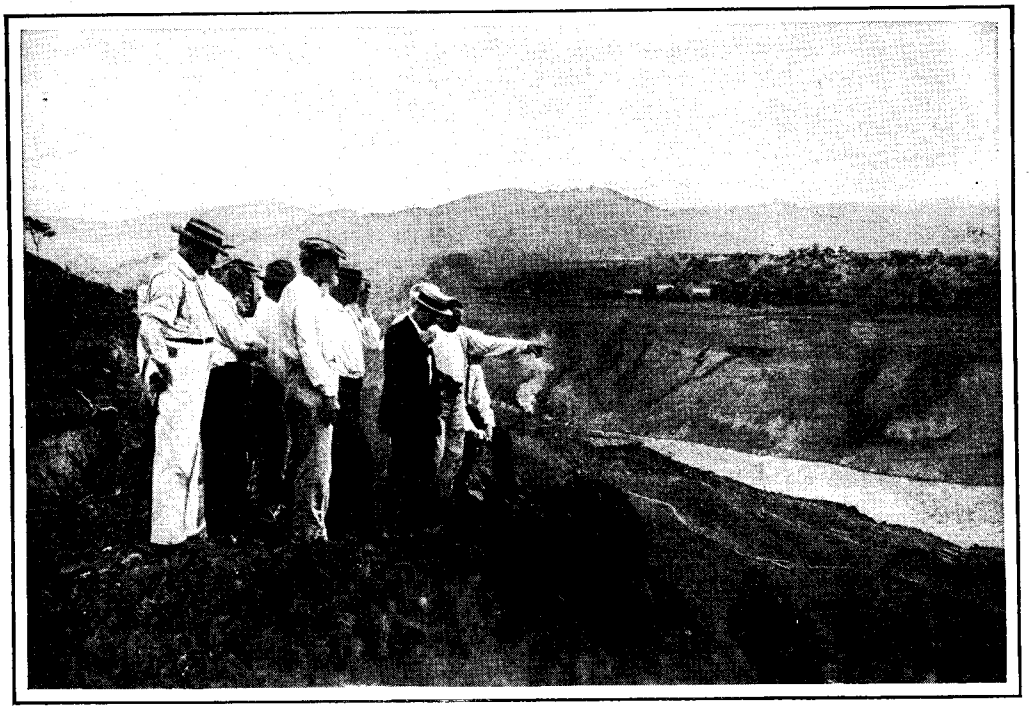


DREDGING FLEET AT CUCARACHA SLIDE



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GENERAL GOETHALS AND THE COMMISSION APPOINTED BY PRESIDENT WILSON STUDYING THE CAUSES OF THE SLIDES

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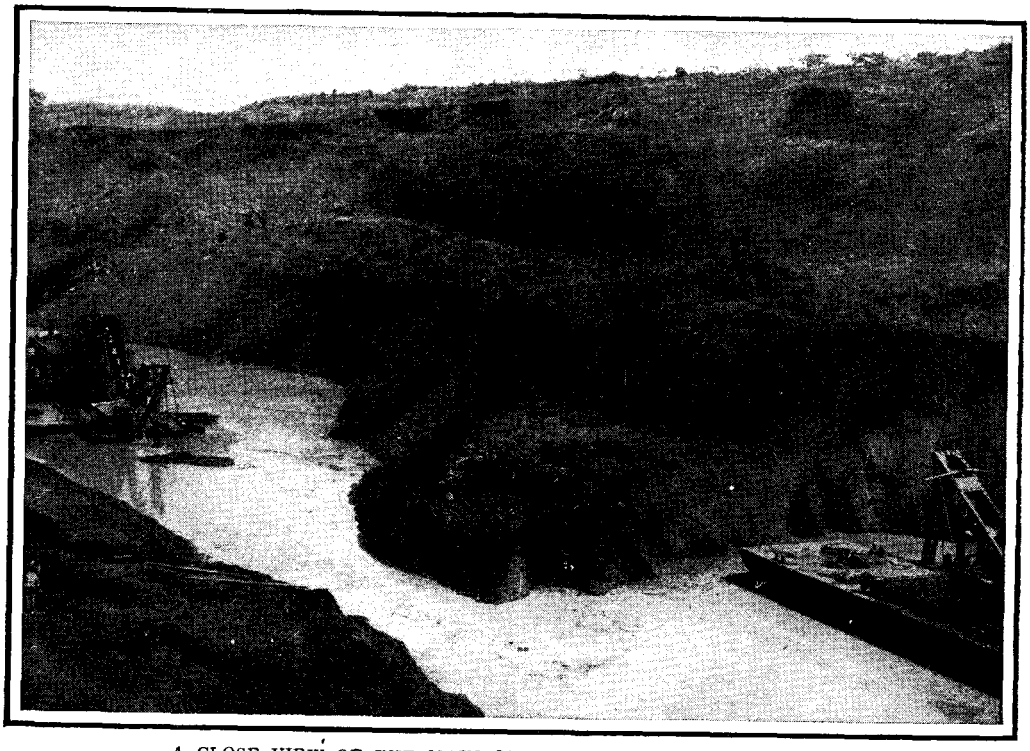

A CLOSE VIEW OF THE MAIN OBSTRUCTION IN A GREAT SLIDE

slip which occurred in the rock pile that formed the southern toe of the portion of the Gatun Dam near the edge of the old French Canal, and which brought forth such adverse criticism of the project at the time, was caused by dumping rock on a comparatively soft and slippery material. On the relocation of the Panama Railroad high embankments were built on ground underlying which were relatively soft strata that could not bear the pressure transmitted to them by the superimposed masses."

General Goethals enumerates three distinct classes of slides which were encountered while excavating for the locks and the canal prism. These classifications, depending upon the causes of the slides, are:

First, those caused by the material assuming its natural slope, in cases where the banks were left steeper than the angle of repose for the particular material through which the excavation was carried.

Second, those due to the fact that material more or less permeable reposed on relatively harder strata, which inclined toward the cutting. When the excavation reached a level near or below the intersection of the harder plane with the sides of the prism, the superimposed mass moved into the excavated area.

Third, those which resulted from the breaking of weak strata underlying the banks, rupture being produced by the concentration of the weights of the banks due to the removal of the material from the prism.

"The first two classes were designated 'slides,'" explains the General. "With the third class the cause was the breaking up structurally of the natural material, and they were called 'breaks' in contradistinction to the slides, although after the break occurred the movement of the mass above the fractured strata into the excavated area produced the same general effect as the slide of the other classes.

"The first class gave relatively little trouble, and ceased entirely when the natural slope of the material was reached. The second class usually brought in quantities of material suddenly, at times burying or overturning steam shovels or tracks, interrupting drainage, and causing considerable delay and additional expense. In these cases, when the material reached the angle of repose which the conditions imposed there was no further trouble.

"The third class, or breaks, were the most

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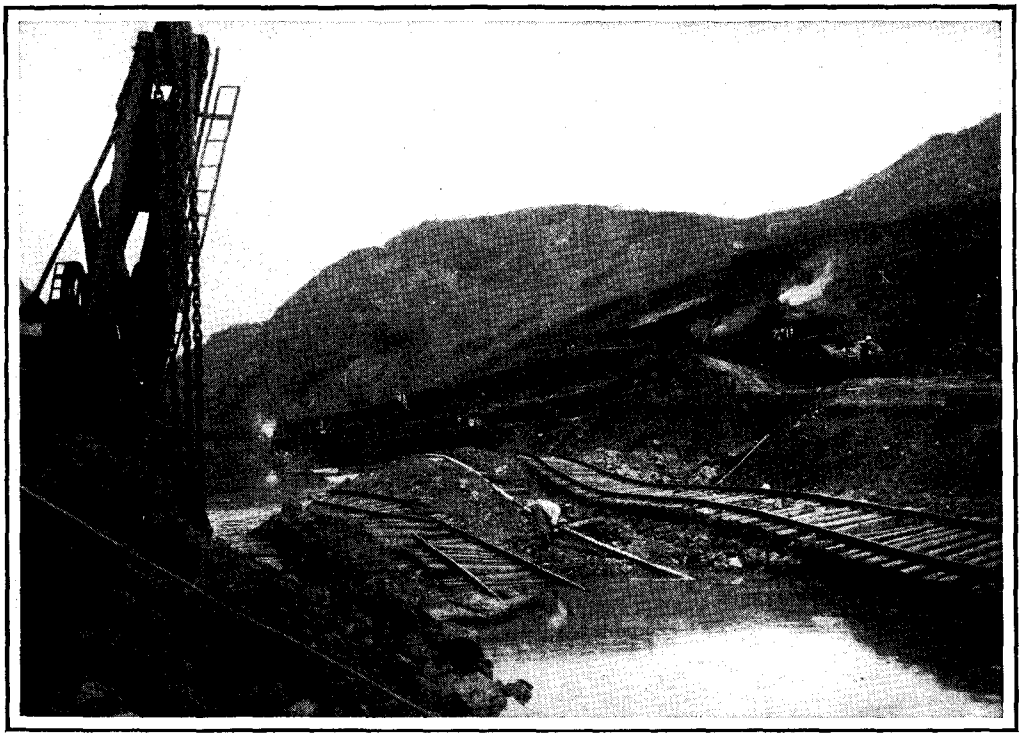

UPHEAVAL OF THE BOTTOM DUE TO BREAK IN THE BANK (RIGHT IN PICTURE) DURING DRY EXCAVATION

serious and difficult slides encountered, and our present difficulties are due to breaks, two in number, on opposite sides of the Canal in the vicinity of Culebra, north of Gold Hill. While breaks occurred at various places along the line of the Canal, those in Gaillard Cut, or the excavation through the continental divide, were the most serious, because of the heterogeneous masses of material which composed it, and the depth of the cutting, which affected the territory adjacent to the Cut for a considerable distance, and therefore brought down large quantities of material."

One statement made by General Goethals is interesting in the light of criticism I heard in the Canal Zone to the effect that the American engineers did not avail themselves of observations made by the French engineers before them. It is: "The French company experienced difficulties with a slide at Cucaracha as early as 1884, but all the indications pointed to a surface movement only, and this opinion was supported by geologists who examined into the matter. With the possible exception of the French member, who is said to have been somewhat apprehensive on the subject, the International Board of Engineers anticipated no difficulties from landslides, as their report clearly indicates, and as does also the testimony of those members of that Board who appeared before the committees of Congress dealing with the Canal. The slides that were regarded as probable were surface movements of the clay covering the rocks, resulting from the heavy rains, and these were provided for by arranging the slopes in a series of steps on a general inclination of forty-five degrees, the angle of repose of ordinary earth."

The sliding at Cucaracha continued after the American forces assumed the work of building the Canal. In 1906 the engineers employed a geologist, who, after spending some months in making personal examinations of the geological formation of the country traversed by the Canal, made a report on the subject, which was published in full in the annual report of the Isthmian Canal Commission for 1907. In this report the geologist said:

The relation of the Isthmian geology to the varied problems of canal construction is, in all cases, intimate. One of the problems that is closely connected with the geology is that of the excavation of the Cut in the central area. Actual work has advanced so far in this region, however, that geology can add little to the practical information acquired in the course of the

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excavation that has already been made. A less evident but perhaps closer relationship exists between the geology and the problems attendant upon the construction of the locks and dams, while the necessity of obtaining large quantities of building material near the points where locks and regulating works are to be constructed calls for a special study.

The physical character of the Culebra beds, consisting as they do of alternating layers of sandstone and shale, is peculiarly favorable to landslides. Structurally, however, the strata are so nearly horizontal, or have such low southerly dips north of Gold Hill, that movements involving large masses of rocks are improbable, while slopes of suitable angles will do away with the danger of minor slips.

"So far, then, as the geologist could foresee," adds General Goethals, "difficulties north of Gold Hill were improbable, and if any occurred they could be easily overcome and prevented by suitably sloping back the sides of the excavation. . . . Another factor was taken into consideration. It was the belief that the effect of the water would tend to retard the slides, through the counteracting effect of the weight of the volume of water, and this belief seemed justified from the experience gained below Gatun Locks. On the other hand, the geologist held the opinion that the water might, to some extent, develop the slides; if this were to be the case, then the sooner this fact was developed the better. . . . Water was admitted to the Cut on October 10, 1913. The dredges reached Cucaracha slide on October 23, 1913, and up to August 3, 1914, on which date the first ship went through the Canal, they removed 2,767,080 cubic yards, or an average of 286,239.78 per month."

The most troublesome slides have been near the village of Culebra (the Spanish word for snake), which began in 1907. Within the stretch of a little less than nine miles, which constitute Gaillard Cut, twenty-two slides and breaks have developed.

"Ships were passed through the Canal," General Goethals explains, "when a channel of sufficient width and depth was dredged through Cucaracha slide, and when there was every reasonable hope of maintaining it. In this respect there was no subsequent disappointment, and the dredges were completing their work in this locality when, on October 14, 1914, without any warning, a section of the east bank, north of Gold Hill, settled vertically twenty feet. . . . Subsequently the broken mass moved into the Cut, reducing the depth of water from forty-five feet to nine inches at one point. Until August, 1915, the dredges were able for the most part to keep up with the movement as it came down, and probably would have been able to maintain this condition had not a movement occurred on the west bank, necessitating work on this side to the detriment of the east side.

"A crack was found on the slope of Zion Hill in June, 1914, but observations made upon it showed no movement, and the solidity of the hill was never doubted. . . . The movement into the Cut from the west bank occurred in August, 1915, when a section of Zion Hill broke away and settled down. The edge of the break on this side is also a curve. The movements from the two sides are towards the central portion of the inclosed area, and at this central portion is the obstruction to the channel. It first appeared as an island forced up from the bottom; then as a peninsula projecting from the east bank, and finally was pushed entirely across the channel, completely closing it."

Mingling with tourists in the Canal Zone, it was amusing to hear every one make the suggestion that heavy concrete walls be erected to hold back the sliding earth, as if such a thought would not occur to the skilled engineers on the job. To this suggestion General Goethals has replied:

"The construction of retaining walls to withhold the moving masses was not possible, for access to the sides of the prism where the walls belonged could not be had; when access was possible the movement had ceased; there was no evidence of any further movement, and the desirability or necessity for walls no longer existed."

To one who has stood within view of this most recent slide and beheld the gap of colored earth left by the plunge of this great mass of soil into the Canal, blocking the channel, there is an overwhelming consciousness of the tremendous problem that confronts General Goethals and his associate engineers. There is, too, an awe-inspiring impression of the mighty workings of nature in the sight of these looming hills that break and crumble, defying the finest engineering skill of modern times. Yet, just as General Goethals has made good his promise to create a temporary channel in the midst of chaos too great for the casual reader to realize, so will he overcome all the obstacles in the way of the complete realization of the full destiny of the Panama Canal. At least that is my feeling.

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JAPAN'S CORONATION SEASON

BY ELIZA RUHAMAH SCIDMORE

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT OF THE OUTLOOK IN JAPAN

ALL Japan has been in gala array for six weeks: flagged, bannered, garlanded, with lights, lanterns, and holiday crowds and processions in celebration of the formal accession or coronation of the Emperor.

The contrasts between this coronation and the last one, in October, 1868, are as extreme as the condition of the country now and then. After brief ceremonies attended by the small company of old *Kuge* or court nobles the old Emperor, taking the Divine Treasures with him, left Kyoto to make the new capital of the new era at Yeddo. The Meiji Emperor often revisited Kyoto, but the Treasures never came back until the other day when the young Taisho emperor brought them as his possessions and announced his accession, to the Divine Ancestors and the spirits of heaven and earth, in the presence of princes, nobles, and people, and representatives of all the nations of the earth. It must bewilder every Japanese to consider what has happened in his country in these forty-seven years, what the great Meiji ruler and the leaders did for the people, and what the people have done for themselves. Japan was one of the small nations then, and poor; and it was supposed to be merely a question of time when one of the great nations would annex or protect it, each one then secretly warning Japan of the definite evil intentions of the others. Now it is one of the great powers whose alliance is valued, the most progressive of civilized nations, and fast piling up a gold reserve that will make it a rich nation; while its model army and navy are fully competent and prepared to protect it and maintain its greatness.

"Coronation" was only a formal name for foreign comprehension, since there was no crown, and no ecclesiastic performed any act or uttered any word that consecrated a passive emperor or endowed him with the supreme power. The Emperor of Japan himself, alone, announced the death of his father and took the oath to the Imperial ancestors in the sanctuary of the palace three years ago; and this year he proclaimed the fact of his accession to the ancestors, offered and partook of the first rice harvested in his reign outside of a period of mourning, in silence and alone, in communion with the great spirits. The few services were those of ancestor worship, and the wonderful old religious court dances and the symbolic feasts were for soothing and pleasing the spirits of the Divine Ancestors.

The Imperial House Law, promulgated at the same time as the Constitution (February 11, 1889), very briefly treats of the ascension and coronation. It only says: "Chapter 11, Article X. Upon the demise of the Emperor, the Imperial heir shall ascend the throne, and shall acquire the Divine Treasures of the Imperial Ancestors." Of these treasures, the regalia of the Empire, the accepted mirror of the Sun Goddess, remains at Ise; the sword taken from the mythical dragon rests at Atsuta temple, and only the real jewel, the necklace of carved *magatama*, prehistoric ornaments, is in Imperial keeping. The Treasures have had many vicissitudes, have been destroyed by fire, thrown in the sea, and stolen; but for at least five centuries the replicas have enjoyed peace, although not seen by mortal eye. Shrouded in precious bags that are never opened or removed, they are reverently touched and tended by Shinto ritualists. As each bag crumbles to loose threads, another silk bag is placed over the tattered relic, until twenty or forty such crumbling coverings are enfolded in the present rich swathing.

Article XI says: "The ceremonies of coronation shall be performed and a grand coronation banquet [*Daijosai*] shall be held at Kyoto." Given those four lines of print, there was built up an Imperial Ordinance relating to the coronation, which is a small book. All the old records and historical papers were searched; and, eliminating everything of Chinese origin or Buddhist influence, the purely Japanese ceremonial of the Nara court of twelve hundred years ago was revived. The old court dress, which the ladies had not worn as ceremonial attire for thirty years, was restored, and proved the success and sensation of each occasion. The only incongruous features were the modern uniforms and court costumes of the men, and the presence of foreign representatives.

There was the usual marvelous prearrangement, perfect co-ordination of plans, and

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clockwork precision in all ceremonies. Everything was considered and foreseen and provided for years and months in advance, and it all came off according to the programme. Everything was allotted, listed, diagrammed, lettered, numbered, labeled. From ornamental nail-heads set in the palace floors to show where each personage was to stand, to the fenced and labeled waiting-place of each motor, carriage, and jinrikisha, and the rest-tents for chauffeurs, grooms, and coolies, there was an exact place for every one; every one was put in his place, and stayed there. Every coolie, gardener, groom, and chauffeur had to be registered and undergo medical examination a fortnight in advance, and again to present tongue and pulse to the doctors two days before the first ceremony, in order that no chance of disease should come near the sacred person. Everything worked smoothly from the time the Emperor left for Kyoto, November 6, until he returned to Tokyo on the 28th; and the great military review, the naval review, the banquets and ceremonial dances, and the final triumphal progress through the streets of Tokyo on the 9th of December, went off without a slip.

The crowning glory of the military review and of the naval review was the vision of Fujisan, clear cut against the sky, shining with new snow, an omen of good luck. Everything was propitious and of good augury; and good luck was heaped on good luck when, on the night of the army review, the young Empress, who had been denied all part in the festivities, blessed the empire with another sturdy little prince. Four sons now secure the succession against all ordinary chances.

The ceremonies really began with the selection of the seeds and the rice fields where the sacred rice was grown for the Emperor's offerings to the spirits of his ancestors. The two fields, the *Suki*, near Nagoya, east of Kyoto, and the *Yuki*, on Sanuki Island in the Inland Sea, west of Kyoto, were chosen by an elaborate process of divination, the markings on a tortoise shell indicating the way to the favored plain and valley. Every step was accompanied by ceremonies and festivals; priests and ritualists assisted, and every one taking part bathed and donned new garments. The two fields, each about one acre in extent, inclosed by bamboo latticings, were holy ground and places of pilgrimage. They were fertilized with herring-dust made with the greatest care from fish especially netted off the Hokkaido. Only maidens and men of unblemished character could plant and tend the rice, and when a great storm came, the men made a screen of their bodies and stood for hours to prevent the typhoon gusts from beating down the heavy ears. The harvesting, cleaning, sorting, and polishing were accompanied by Shinto ceremonies, and processions of white-clad farmers carried the total ten bushels of precious grain into the palace itself. A phial of this sacred rice that I saw was regarded as a talisman; each pearly seed was perfect, translucent, and polished until it was like a tiny moonstone.

From the sowing of the seed-beds, pilgrims and visitors began to come by hundreds, and later by thousands. Roads and bridges were rebuilt and repaired, rest-houses were erected by the villages, and villagers made preparations to entertain all their relatives and friends. Public and private hospitality was tested to the utmost. There were new clothes and ceremonial clothes to be bought, much time given to the fêtes that marked each stage of the rice plants' growth, and all ordinary vocations and profitable agriculture were suspended. Every householder in the two districts, it is said, has incurred debts during the long gala summer and autumn, and it will be ten or more years before they are free, and life again normal in the regions around the Suki and the Yuki. The gains are all moral, not material. All of the two communities have held to higher standards of personal conduct that they might be chosen for the honors, and doubtless, having found the rewards of virtue, they will prefer the nobler way, the higher life, for the long, lean years to come. Already the maidens who tended the Suki and the Yuki are sought in marriage from near and from far, and the youths for adoption in great families.

There was not a house nor a hut in all the empire without its flag and lantern, and the street decorations were endless in variety and beauty. There were, of course, ambitious monstrosities in Western style that equaled the worst of Washington's inaugural haphazard convulsions, evergreen arches that were sometimes possible, and lath and plaster constructions of the World's Fair order that were all impossible. Barring such aberrations, Japanese good taste and traditions transformed the most commonplace streets to things of festal beauty.

Every unsightly object along the whole Im-

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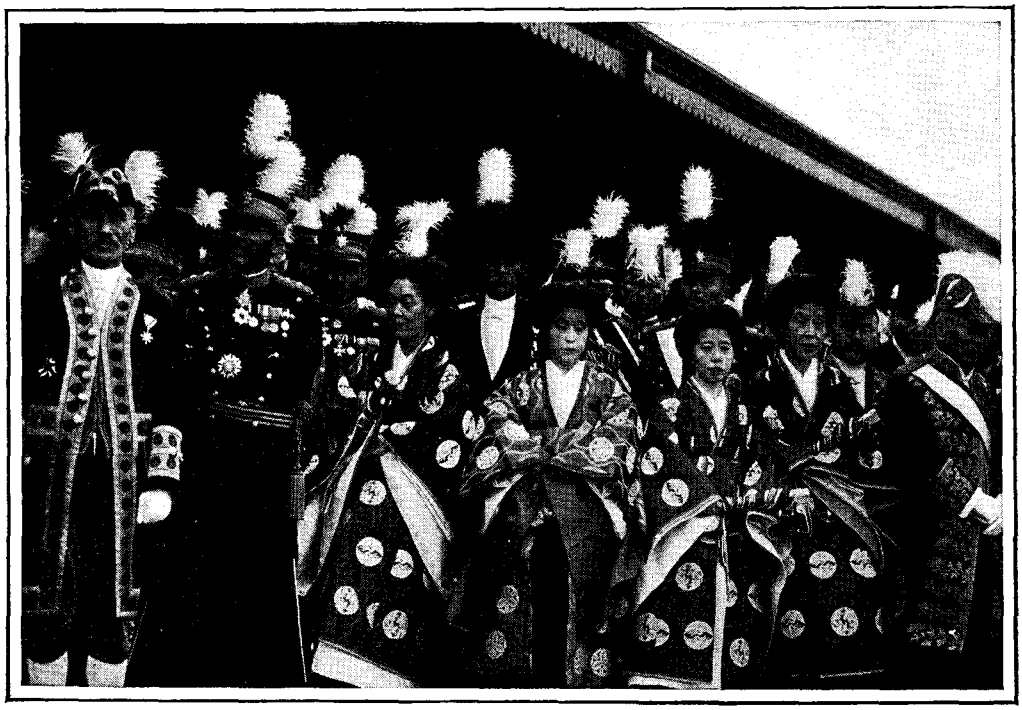

CIVIL AND MILITARY OFFICIALS WITH THEIR WIVES WAITING AT THE KYOTO STATION TO RECEIVE THE EMPEROR

perial route was hidden by curtains of broad stripes. Solid purple curtains were looped at the palace entrances only. One rode for blocks in any city between continuous curtains of blue and white stripes, red and white horizontal bars; then stretches of the lucky "five-color" combination, long known as "the Buddhist flag," and for these brief years as the national flag of the five peoples of the Chinese Republic. There were blocks of city streets set with young pine trees or bamboos every ten feet and connected by the deep straw fringes that always hang at Shinto temple gates and at every one's door at the New Year. There were rich streets gay with tall banners like the palace court, red and gold brocade *banzai* banners, Sun, Moon, Kite, and Crow banners, and Jimmu Tenno's long red banner with the bowl and the five symbolic fish. Always there were myriad paper lanterns, and the huge festival lanterns, each under its own quaint pent roof or flower parasol; and by night there was also a blaze and glare of barbaric electric lights that delighted Kyoto and the other cities.

For the masses in Kyoto there was only the ordinary and necessary passing of the Emperor between the railway station and the palace to be seen; and on the day of his arrival, accompanied by the shrine holding the Divine Treasures, the population of the city was doubled and ranged along his route. For two miles the people sat in rows on the sidewalk and on the floors of the one great room into which each house or shop was converted for the day. The red blankets of ceremony were spread, and the most precious screens were opened out for background of these domestic tableaux. A path of fresh sand, untrodden, awaited the Imperial cavalcade, and inches deep it extended clear to the palace steps, carefully tended by sweepers in new clothing, who patted and drew the edges truer and sharper hour by hour. Troops lined the way in the station plaza, with its monstrous, hideous foreign arch, and files of dark-blue policemen stood for a few blocks, so precisely aligned that their white-gloved hands were like part of a great striped decorative scheme. After that the Emperor rode through the great seated company of his people, household groups and family parties. Not a cheer, a banzai, a hurrah, or a sound broke the profound stillness, and the reverent silence awed the most obstreperous foreigner there. The loyal heads bent at his approach in long running waves, and lips

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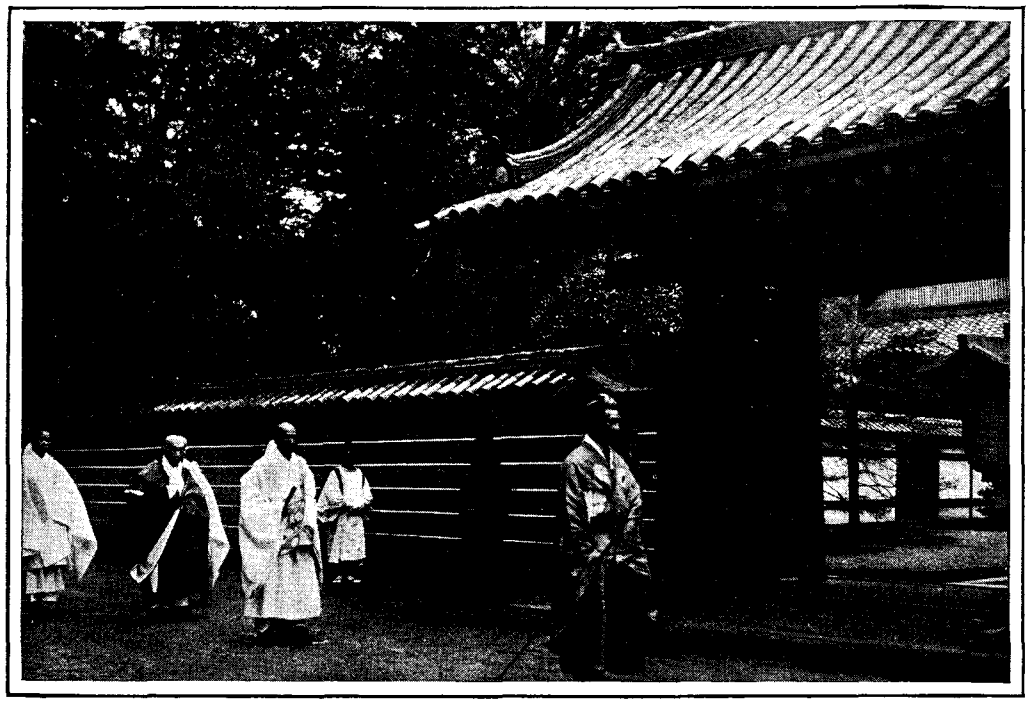

BUDDHIST AND SHINTO PRIESTS WHO BLESSED THE IMPERIAL ROBE WORN BY THE EMPEROR AT THE CORONATION

moved in prayer. The people on the sidewalks had been in their places nine and twelve hours even, and seated immovable on scraps of newspaper or straw matting for the final six hours. Every upper window was closed throughout the day. There was no one perched on roofs, walls, or fences or trees to look down on the sovereign. There were no crushes, rushes, broken grand stands, or disorder. The decorous, silent, reverent company sat there in holiday attire, nearly a million, to pay homage to the divinely descended ruler.

By noon seventy thousand specially favored Japanese sat shoeless on straw mattings, some thirty rows deep, on either side of the broad drive in the palace grounds, between the old brown outer gate and the inner gate of the palace itself. There were representative school children—ten out of every hundred in the Kyoto schools—members of the local Red Cross branch, honor men and wounded men of the reserves, officers of chartered associations, old people over eighty years of age, and finally a company of foreigners, to whom cards were issued through the embassies and legations.

Did the foreigners also sit on the benches provided for them, quietly, decently, and in order, until the Emperor came? Not at all. They walked up and down as at a race-course, ran to the curb at the sound of distant rockets, dragged the mattings to the edge of the drive, and some ate from lunch-boxes and scattered untidy fragments on the grass.

A far-away bomb had announced the arrival of the Emperor at the station, and an hour later a policeman lifted his finger at the palace gate, and the thousands of statuesque figures in the Emperor's flower garden became more erect and rigid. A single mounted policeman advanced slowly and paused under the ponderous brown gateway, then walked his horse down the broad ribbon of fresh sand. Other mounted figures followed at leisurely distances. The group of Shinto priests in softly toned hemp robes—blue, red, yellow, and purple—gave splendid touches of pure color to the scene, as did the robes of the men of Hase, who bore the great shrine containing the Divine Treasures. For centuries the men of Hase village have borne with perfection of tread and pacing the Imperial palanquins, coffins, and shrines, their community freed from all taxes by that tribute. The people recognized the princes, the Premier, the popular favorites and the unpopular

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Ministers, who rode in gala dress after the Emperor, but no voice was lifted, no cheer was heard. The heads bowed as the heads of grain bow when the wind sweeps a field of ripe barley. The procession had passed dream-like in silence, with muffled footsteps and hoof-beats, and in ten minutes the brief pageant was over. It was all so simple and so quiet, so devoid of any attempt to make a pageant, a parade, or a spectacle of the young sovereign's return to the home palace of his ancestors. Militarism was absent, troops invisible.

"Is that all? Is it over?" asked the tourists.

"And I shall have traveled two thousand miles to see *this!*" exclaimed a naïve Briton. "And missed the Peking races!" he exclaimed in climax, when the silent procession had faded like a vision. When the Emperor had passed, a policeman, with a breast covered with war medals, asked for the camera which an undersized European thought he had cleverly concealed. The policeman wore the Japanese smile as etiquette provides on such great occasions, but it was a smile that made the little Latin's knees knock, and, after some denials, the black box was handed over by a confederate. Then a polished Kencho secretary, graduate of an American university, with the most exquisite manners, a courtesy finer than frost flowers, and of their temperature exactly, begged, since the homunculus had not photographed the Emperor, that he would remove the film. The white ribbon of celluloid was unrolled to the sky, the camera returned with bows and more smiles, and there was no diplomatic appeal or incident.

The last coronation or accession, celebrated in October, 1868, came at time of civil strife and threatened danger from abroad. The treasury was empty, and barely 100,000 yen were available for expenses. In this year 5,000,000 yen have been appropriated for coronation expenses, and Japan is arranging a loan to *France!*—one of the richest countries of Europe. There were hundreds assisting this time to tens present forty-seven years ago, when the services were made as simple as possible.

"To-day we go back a thousand years," was Dr. Nitobe's apt remark on the occasion of the Meiji emperor's funeral, three years ago, and it was applicable to all the recent services before the palace shrine and in the primitive bark huts of the Daijosai, while the dances were as old as Shinto. Everything in etiquette and costume borrowed from the

PARADE OF GEISHAS IN THE STREETS OF TOKYO, ENDING IN FRONT OF THE PALACE, WHERE THEY GAVE THEIR "BANZAIS" FOR THE EMPEROR

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Tang and Sung courts of the older continent, everything showing the influence of Buddhism or the poison of Confucianism, was eliminated. Never were so many court ladies present, and each was a picture in the loose outer robe of heaviest brocade, opening over a divided skirt of thick scarlet silk. The hair, drawn back, was stiffened into a thin halo around the face, and then, falling straight, was tied twice with red and white paper and cords. All Japanese were loud in praise of the beauty and the effect of this old court dress. They noted with approval that these magnificent old brocades, thick as felt and soft as kid, with their bold patterning, strong, soft colors, and sheen of gold threads, went better with the gold lace uniforms, made a more splendid and harmonious ensemble, than the white, vague, and colorless upper part of foreign dress. Wonderfully ordered as all the ceremonies were, the masters of ceremonies a little ignored the physical comfort and endurance of the participants, and valuable lives were risked and distinguished infirmities aggravated by the long waits, the hours and hours of standing and sitting in chill or draughty pavilions and courts. The great personages were evidently regarded as little more than pawns, parts and properties in the great spectacular scenes, as insensible as the toy figures in the models of the coronation scene, as hardy as young recruits. Some fainted and broke under the strain, but no one retires alive from or during a sovereign function, and there was much heroic endurance on the part of aged officials. Count Okuma and the Minister of War were invalided for a month after the first ceremony; the Chilean Minister tragically strained an already weak heart; and coughs and colds were souvenirs of the protracted gala season.

A gift of one million yen was made to charities on Coronation Day, and the sovereign received many wonderful gifts from his people, from the artists of different cities and provinces. Also the Czar sent him a massive pink rhodonite vase, some small things in gold with monograms in rubies, and that sort of thing. The King of England shipped to him a magnificent black riding horse; the President of France, a set of Gobelin tapestries; and Italy other regal gifts, as is usual between rulers on such occasions.

Every ceremony was elaborated and drawn out and even repeated, and the Daijosai was separated entirely from the Grand Coronation Banquet of the House Law. The day of the sacred Daijosai was marked as "the day of the great silence." The court assembled at sunset, and the stream of motors, carriages, and jinrikishas did not come away from the palace until daylight. For three hours before midnight, and for three hours before dawn, the Emperor alone in his ceremonial white robes communed with the gods, offered the new rice and millet of the year, and partook of the fruits of the earth with the spirits of his ancestors in the twin bark huts under the mighty trees of the Sento Gosho garden, the oldest and most beautiful of all the famous gardens of Kyoto. It was a mystic, sacred ceremony, the light of torches and fires faintly illuminating the motionless rows of courtiers who sat the hours in chill silence. After this harvest or thanksgiving festival with the gods were held the coronation banquets proper, the first in Japanese, the second in European style, to which practically the same company was bidden. Coronation feasts were held at every provincial capital and city at the same moment, and more than one hundred thousand people partook of the Emperor's hospitality at the same hour. The sovereign shared the earth's bounty, the fruits of the land, the air, and the sea, with princes and people of every class and degree. Because of this participation in the Imperial favor or bounty, never were elections to offices, high or low, so fiercely desired and worked for. The Cabinet Ministers grasped at straws and denied their previous arguments to remain in office over the coronation season. Members of Parliament scrupled not to corrupt the voters; and loyal subjects struggled to be president of any sort of an association, representative of any sort of a body or group of people, or even headman of a village. Men stopped at nothing in crder that they might be present or come within range of some sort of a coronation honor, favor, or feast.

Denied any part in the palace ceremonies, although emperors have been Buddhists for twelve hundred years, and the old Empress Dowager had a wonderful Buddhist funeral with a torchlight procession to the tomb at midnight in a snowstorm in January twenty years ago, all Buddhists held special services to celebrate the coronation. Every temple bell rang one hundred and eight times on the morning of the great day, and there were chants and incense offerings by great companies of priests in splendid robes. A special

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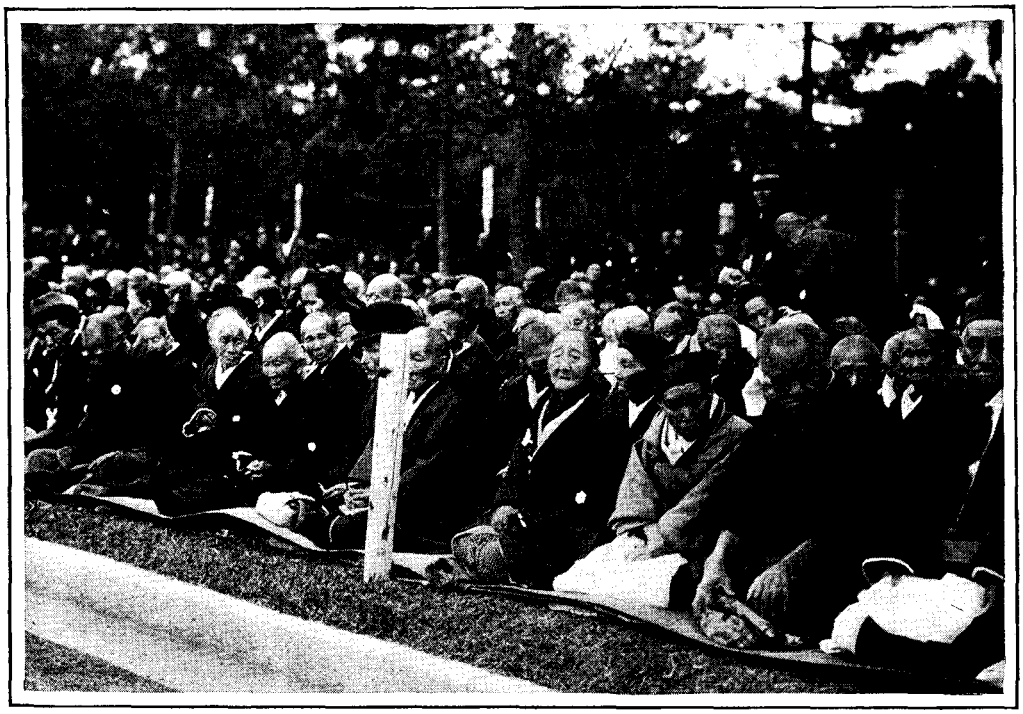

AGED JAPANESE IN THEIR SPECIAL RESERVATION WAITING FOR THE EMPEROR

More than 1,000 of these aged subjects of the Emperor, all over eighty years of age, were honored by this special place during the ceremonies. In addition, many thousands of persons over eighty years of age, it is reported, received each a gift from the Crown as a souvenir of the coronation

Christian service was arranged to be held at the Doshisha, the Christian university long under the auspices of the American Board, on the day following the coronation, but it took personal insistence to get a satisfactory attendance by the visiting Christians in Kyoto, after cards had been widely sent. Three Christian ambassadors were present, unofficially, without their families or suites.

The first coronation banquet at Nijo Castle, in a great hall constructed for the occasion, was for twelve hundred guests; it was served in Japanese style, with a great bunch of silver flowers as souvenir. On the following day two thousand guests were entertained in foreign style, each receiving a square silver bonbon box in chrysanthemum design as a favor. At the Japanese banquet each diner had three white-pine trays before him, the simplest materials, but of the most perfect and careful workmanship in joining and finishing. The rice, the soups, the black and the white *sake* were served in plain red pottery bowls and cups—the commonest clay, but clay strained, worked, potted, and molded to the finest and most exquisite surface. That elaborately worked out simplicity that costs like rubies attached to every detail of the imperial feast. Each guest was given a square of white muslin, and in it the symbolic little pine tree, the tai fish bent like a bow and tied with red and gold cords, and the weighty bunch of silver flowers, were heaped on one of the trays, tied up, and carried home.

When the Czar went to Moscow for his coronation, the princes who came as special ambassadors were guests of the Czar, but the members of the diplomatic corps "hustled" for themselves, "found themselves" in hotels or apartments in the old capital. The Japanese Government asked that no special ambassadors be sent from any country, accepting instead every chief of a mission in Tokyo as a special ambassador, and making each such representative, with three of his staff, guests of the Emperor. Ambassadors, ministers, first secretaries, military and naval attachés, also their wives, were all taken to Kyoto on special trains, lodged in villas and in the two hotels reserved for them, with motors and carriages at their disposal, for twelve days. They were in attendance at palace functions on three days, and for the rest of the time assiduous chamberlains provided sightseeing trips, dinners,

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dances, theatrical entertainments, street processions, and festivals to amuse them. They were showered with gifts and souvenirs, and every courtesy and attention was paid them. Japan's allies—Great Britain, France, Russia, and Italy—had diplomatic parties of three, four, and six members. The American party numbered fifteen in all, for to the Ambassador, the secretary, military and naval attachés, all with wives, were added, a day before the coronation, Admiral Winterhalter, three naval officers, and three ladies.

Kyoto was *en fête*, and the old Hundred Day Fair of cherry-blossom season was expanded to an exhibition in many cement and stucco structures, with Manchurian and Formosa buildings and Saghalien and South Sea buildings to emphasize the oversea interests, and even a modified midway or zone. The cherry-blossom dance of April, with its thirty-two dancers and twenty musicians in splendid dresses, was given at the Geisha theater in November, with special coronation dances by tiny *maiko*, who repeated some of the sacred dances of the maidens at the Suki and the Yuki rice fields.

There were wonderful displays of art and luxury in the open shops and inner rooms in the city. "*Banzai*" designs decorated countless objects and were woven and dyed into every sort of fabric. The color of the Emperor's coronation robe, the dull, soft red-orange of the rising sun in mist, was omnipresent.

After the Kyoto ceremonies the Emperor had a long programme of pilgrimages to the shrines of his ancestors at Ise, to the tomb of his father, to the tomb of Jimmu Tenno, founder of the dynasty, and to the tombs of the three emperors preceding the last ruler. Then came another slow, silent progress through streets lined with sitting people, and the return to Tokyo, past railway stations lined up with school children, soldiers, and loyal subjects in holiday attire. The journey ended in such a splendid and spectacular entry into Tokyo as can probably never happen again.

The return to the capital did not end the Emperor's coronation programme. There was still the great military review on a brilliantly clear, sunny day, when 40,000 troops filed past and aeroplanes flew overhead and proved that the least, last detail of preparedness and national defense had been attended to in Japan. Even the spectators, who had to be in their places by 8:30 of a December morn and stood four hours in a sweeping north wind, were able to be enthusiastic over the spectacle.

There followed the naval review, when one hundred and forty ships were ranged in four rows along a course four and a half miles long, immediately outside the Yokohama harbor breakwater, the Emperor going down a lane of dreadnoughts and battle-ships, and returning between ranks of cruisers and gunboats, with torpedo boats and destroyers ranged behind them. It was a day made to order for such a spectacle, with brilliantly clear skies and the miracle of Fujiyama against the western sky. The little submarines dived and swam and frisked like porpoises in their peaceful play around the Emperor's grim cruiser, and hydroplanes skimmed the water and hummed away until they were not to be distinguished from the nearer seagulls. It was an imposing and convincing display—36,000 subjects ranged on bridges, decks, and rails as the sovereign passed; and behind these fighting ships one must range in mind all the other ships—colliers, repair, supply and hospital ships, transports, and the hundreds of merchant ships available as transports.

Finally, the Emperor made something of such a progress through the city as the King of England makes after his coronation. The little cortège went out of its way to pass slowly from Shimbashi to Uyeno Park, along the Ginza and the broad boulevards that form the city's main artery. It was the one occasion when the common people, the masses, the men in the street, the plain taxpayers, were directly considered. The near million who watched from the streets, and the 65,000 favored ones with cards and reserved places in and around the pavilion where the imperial address was made, attested the new spirit of advancing democracy that is as interesting and pointed as anything that differs from the coronation of 1868, when the Emperor was unseen by common eye and the people knew nothing and read nothing of what went on within the palace. "I should think the Emperor would want to take a month's leave," said a blunt American when the very last function of the long-drawn season was over. The following day it was announced that the Emperor would spend the cold months at Hayama, the little stretch of *côte d'azur* between Kamakura and Misaki Point, where there is a special climate and a very modest villa or detached palace.

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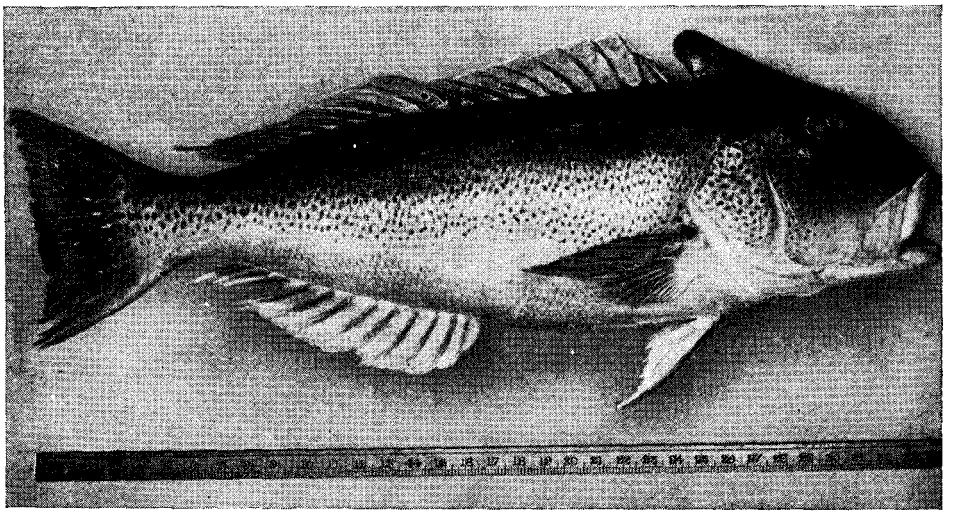
UNCLE SAM GOES FISHING

BY HAWTHORNE DANIEL



COURTESY OF THE NEW YORK ZOOLOGICAL SOCIETY

THE TILEFISH

WITHIN the past two months a deep-sea fish hardly known outside the workshops of a few scientists has been placed on the market in New York City with so much success that it seems likely to become one of the most popular of the available sea foods. This fact merely shows that our thoughtful Uncle Sam is constantly doing his best to look out for our interests.

The fish, called *Lopholatilus chamæleonticeps* by the scientists and "tilefish" by the fishermen, was discovered in 1879. One Captain Kirby, a fisherman, caught a large number of them while fishing in about one hundred fathoms (600 feet) south of Nantucket. Not knowing what they were, he sent a specimen to the Bureau of Fisheries at Washington. The scientists there discovered that the fish was of a species previously unknown. It was then that the scientific name above quoted was originated. This name, meaning "the crested tilus with a head like a chameleon," did not satisfy Captain Kirby, so he took the fourth syllable of the first of the scientific name, and, making a bit of a pun on it, called his discovery "tilefish."

The Bureau of Fisheries noted that the food value of the fish was considerable. Consequently they took steps to determine where and in what quantities the fish could be found. The quest had not gone far when, in 1882, something happened to the submarine world in which the tilefish lived. Incoming ships reported having sailed for miles through water in which floated countless numbers of dead tilefish. One captain reported having sailed for sixty-nine miles through masses of dead and dying fish that were floating on the surface. He at first reported the fish as being around his vessel for fifteen miles, saying later that he was afraid to give the real figures for fear of being doubted. An area approximately 170 miles long and 25 miles wide was covered with the dead fish. A number estimated by the Bureau of Fisheries as 1,400,000,000 are said to have perished. This practically exterminated the fish. For a number of years not a tilefish could be found in the waters in which it had formerly been so abundant.

A theory advanced by the Bureau of Fisheries for this catastrophe is as follows: The tilefish is a bottom dweller in about one hundred fathoms of warm water. It lives near the edge of the Gulf Stream, which occasionally takes a notion to shift its course. In 1882 it moved farther out to sea, leaving the tilefish in cold water. The fish could not follow the shifting Gulf Stream, as the bottom of the ocean drops off abruptly near the one hundred fathom curve to a depth of a thousand fathoms. Consequently almost the entire species was killed by the cold water that covered their habitat.

Whether or not this explanation is correct

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THE CREW OF "THE STRANGER," CAPTAIN YOUNG STANDING AT THE RIGHT

cannot be definitely decided. It is known, however, that in 1892, when the Gulf Stream returned to its former course, the tilefish returned in small numbers. They probably came from some locality to the south where their destruction had not been so complete. Now, having lived for twenty-three years in this vicinity undisturbed by submarine disturbances, they are once more numerous.

The Bureau of Fisheries has kept an eye on the fish, and at last considered the time ripe for placing it on the market. Results have proved that the Bureau was right, and Captain Carl C. Young, a Gloucester fisherman, had no difficulty in catching several tons on each of four trips in the fishing schooner Stranger during October and November.

Captain Young is well known to the Fish Commission. He is one of the really practical fish experts of the country. At one time he was called upon to go to England as fish expert to assist in the settling of some fishing troubles that had arisen between the United States and Great Britain. At other times he has been of assistance to the Bureau. During the past summer, while he was in Washington, the subject of tilefish came up. He was asked by the head of the Fish Commission why he did not fit out a schooner to fish for them. In reply he said that he was in no position to lose any money on the proposition. Not knowing much of the habits of the fish, and not having a market, he was afraid that the venture would not be a success.

The Fish Commission thought the matter over. Later Captain Young was notified that the Bureau of Fisheries would guarantee to make good any amount he might lose if he would fit out a schooner and try to put the fish on the market. Being a good citizen, the captain accepted. The result was that the Stranger, a fifty-ton schooner, was fitted out, and New York was made the starting-point.

On the first trip made by Captain Young for the new fish several tons were brought in nicely packed in chopped ice. Notwithstanding the fact that the fish presented a better appearance than any other on the market, and despite the fact that the Captain asked only five cents a pound for them, it was with the greatest difficulty that the load was sold.

The captain notified the Bureau of Fisheries

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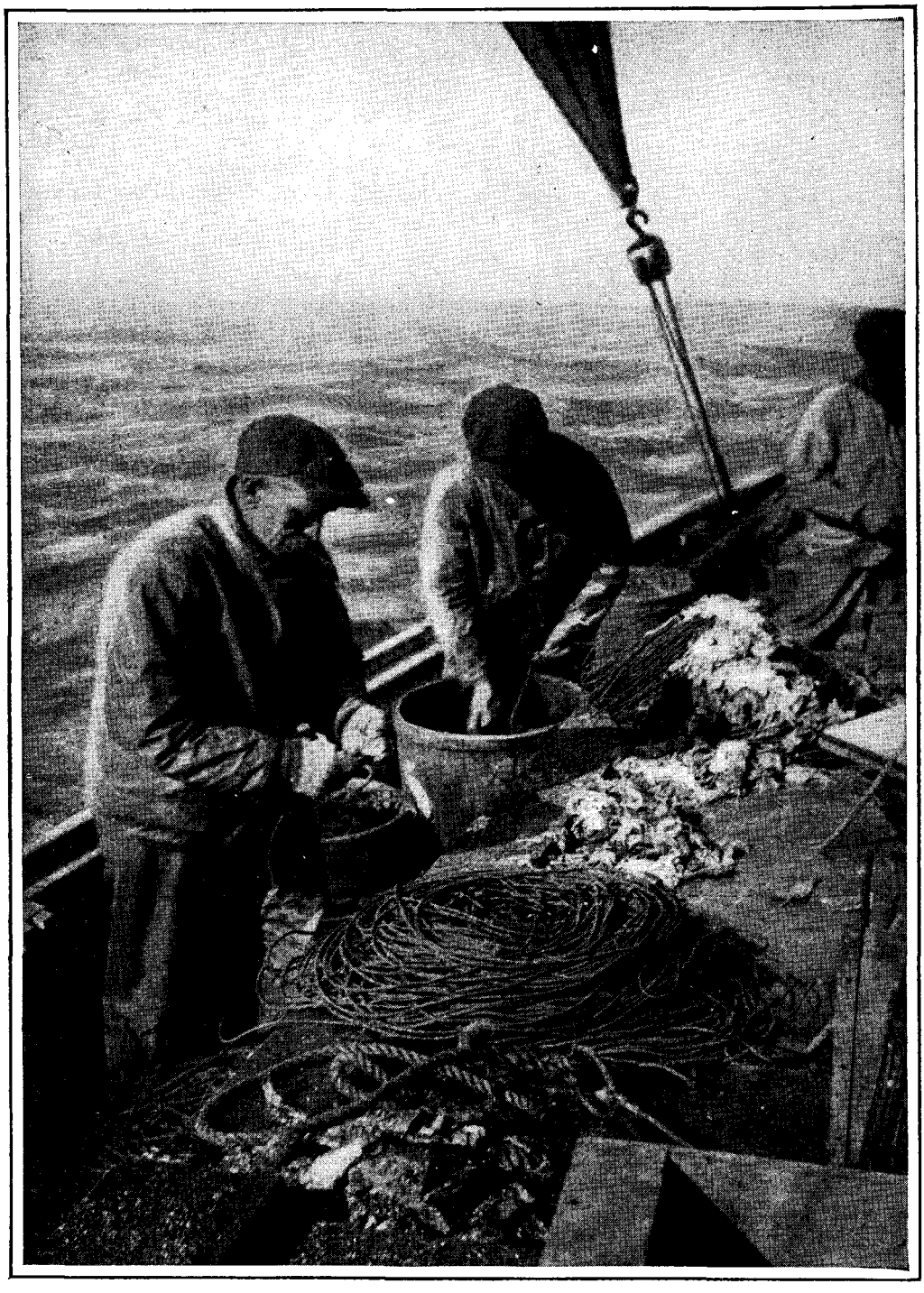

BAITING THE HOOKS

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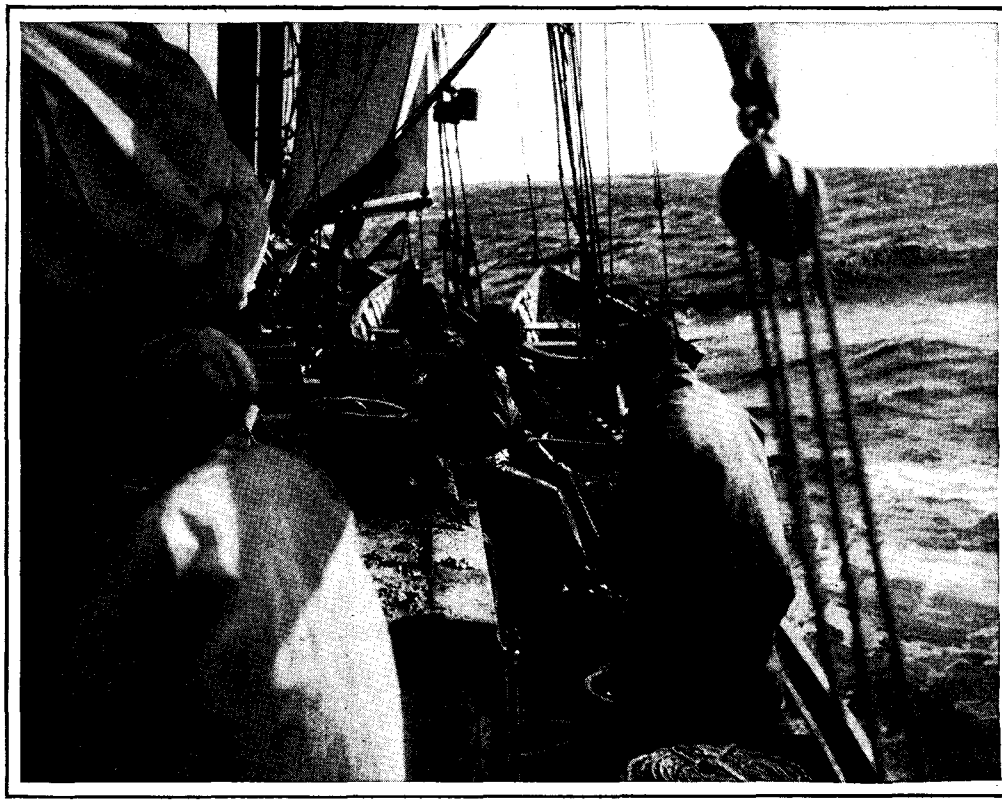

ON THE DECK OF "THE STRANGER"

of the existing conditions, and Thomas M. Douthart, of the Bureau, was sent to New York to attend to the advertising of the fish. So successful was he that Captain Young had no difficulty in getting rid of the fish on the following trips. He was unable, in fact, to fill all the orders that came to him.

Hearing of the Government's plan to put the tilefish on the market, I hunted up Captain Young, and asked him to take me out in order that I might learn something of this new fish. He not only gave me permission to go with the schooner, but also assisted me in every way at his command to get information of the fishing and the fish.

It was on the fourth and last trip made by the Stranger that I was given my first insight into the science of deep-sea fishing. We left New York Saturday, November 6. For the preceding two days a heavy blow had kept the schooner in port, so when we rounded Sandy Hook we ran into the swells left by the storm. The Stranger is not large, and the swells did not add to the small comfort of the boat. She writhed through the sea, shipping solid water occasionally, and spray constantly. The decks were wet all of the time we were out. To make it worse, the mainsail had to be taken in, owing to a broken gaff, before we had been out two hours. A small riding sail was hoisted, but it did not add to the boat's steadiness.

We reached the fishing-grounds before daylight Sunday. I was awakened by the sound of footsteps on the deck. I lost no time in getting into my oilskins, and stumbled up the ladder. Already the men had had breakfast. It was quite late, they said. I glanced at my watch. It was 4:15. I went forward and ate breakfast. When I returned, the crew were busily engaged in baiting hooks. A mile of line was coiled on deck for each of the five dories. A mile of line contains about a thousand hooks, so it was daylight before the baiting was finished. It was interesting to watch the work going on. The flaring kerosene torches lighted a deck littered with lines, hooks, and bait. Methodically the hooks were baited and the lines were coiled in bundles, each containing about half a mile. These were tied up and placed along the rail.

When the lines had been coiled down and

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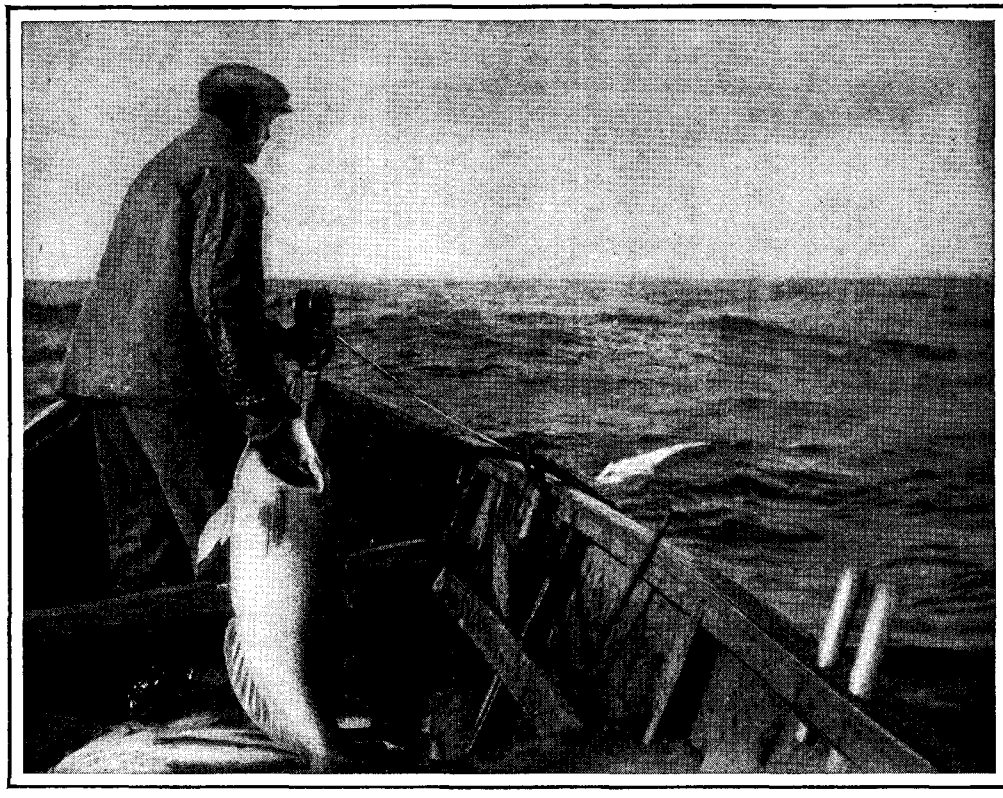
tied in bundles, the dories were got ready. The sun was rising when the first of them was swung over the side. The two men assigned to it waited for their opportunity, and jumped into the tossing boat as it rose on the crest of a large wave. Their lines were passed to them, and they were towed astern. They tossed a small buoy over the side, and let out enough line to reach to the bottom. When the line had run out, the dory was cast adrift. One by one the others followed, at distances of three or four hundred yards. I went in the last dory. It was lowered over the side. My dory mate entered it as it rose on a wave. I waited and jumped as the next wave lifted it. The waves appeared mountainous from the narrow seat in the dory. We were towed astern. Our buoy was tossed overboard, and the buoy line was let out. When the end was reached, we were cast adrift on the heaving bosom of the great Atlantic, with me at the oars. It is fortunate that a dory is able to take care of itself in almost any weather, for the experience gained by rowing about a placid mill-pond is not of much value when it comes to propelling a cockleshell boat through such waves as were running that day.

A small anchor was made fast to the buoy line, and the line containing the hooks was attached. As I rowed my companion paid out the line with wonderful speed, considering the number of hooks he had to keep from catching. It was very difficult to see the next dory. Consequently I had some difficulty in rowing a parallel course. As a matter of fact, I didn't row a parallel course, but we reached the end of our mile of line before we fouled theirs. Another anchor was made fast to the line and was dropped overboard. After a hard pull we were picked up by the schooner. It was rather difficult scrambling over the rail from the tossing boat, but finally I managed it with the assistance of a couple of sailors. I was glad to get back to the comparative quiet of the heaving deck.

The other dories were picked up, and for an hour or more we sailed around the row of buoys. Then the dories were once more lowered over the side, each at its respective buoy. My work was simple in the extreme. I merely sat in the stern and commented on



CATCHING TILEFISH. ONE FISH JUST UNHOOKED; ANOTHER FLOATING BESIDE THE DORY

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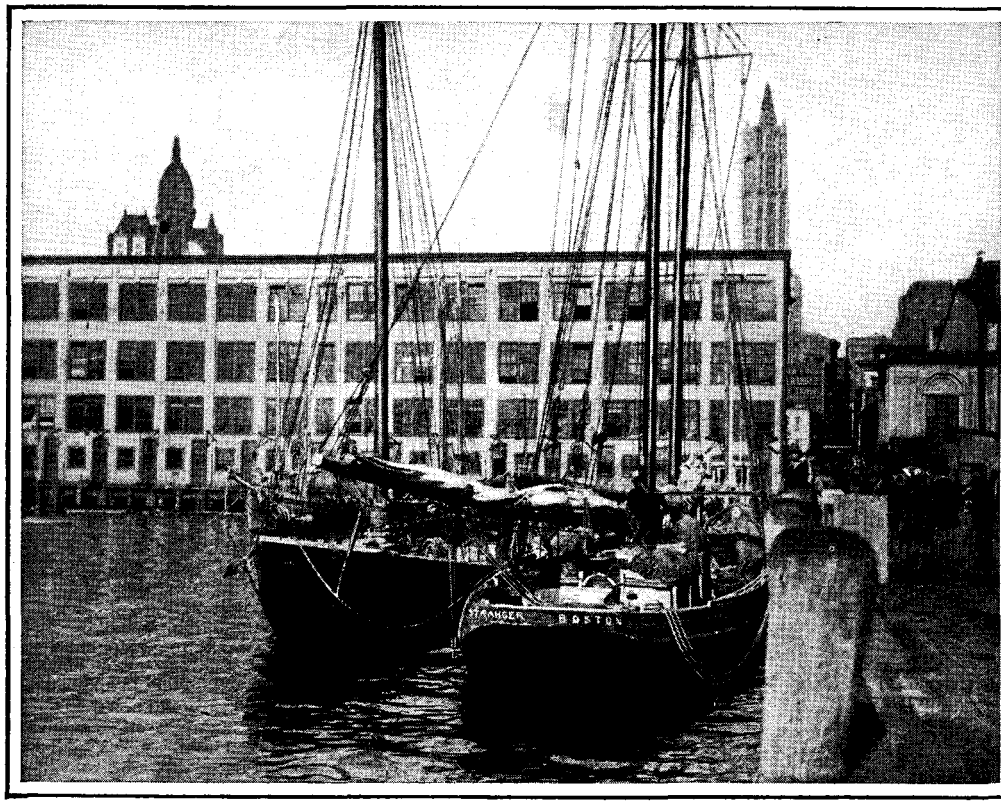

"THE STRANGER" UNLOADING AT THE FULTON STREET MARKET. (THE WOOLWORTH TOWER AND THE SINGER BUILDING IN THE BACKGROUND)

the various things of interest. I am afraid that I comment better than I row. My dory mate hauled in the hundred fathoms of buoy line. Then came the small anchor, and after that the hooks. I believe that we got thirty-four fish from our thousand hooks, but the bait was gone from every hook. Our fish were nice ones, and the load weighed about six hundred pounds. Dogfish, a species of shark about two feet long, were caught in large numbers. We must have hooked nearly two hundred. These fish are practically useless. They are thwacked against the side of the boat and allowed to fall back into the water. Occasionally one would fall into the dory. Then it was that I showed what a fisherman I had become. I would grasp each one firmly as far as possible from his mouth and pound him viciously against the side of the dory. Then I would cast him into the water. That was my principal duty.

With our mile of line coiled in two tubs and our tilefish in a small compartment amidships, we rowed toward the schooner. The fish were thrown aboard and we jumped over the rail. The five dories had caught about a ton of fish.

After dinner the lines were baited again, then set, and later hauled in. The afternoon haul was better than that of the morning. Fully a ton and a half of fish were thrown into the racks on the deck of the schooner. The boats were hoisted aboard, and the work of cleaning the fish began. In a comparatively short time the day's catch was packed in chopped ice in the hold.

The cook announced supper about four o'clock. The sun set and the men turned in. Being a veritable night owl, I stayed on deck until long after dark watching the phosphorus as we plowed through the waves. A school of porpoises played about the schooner for a time, disappearing in a flash of fire. At eight o'clock I went below and turned in. It seemed that I was awakened almost immediately by the cook's call to breakfast. Again I watched the baiting, and again I rowed the dory as we set the line. This time I was better able to keep my distance. The lines were hauled, and

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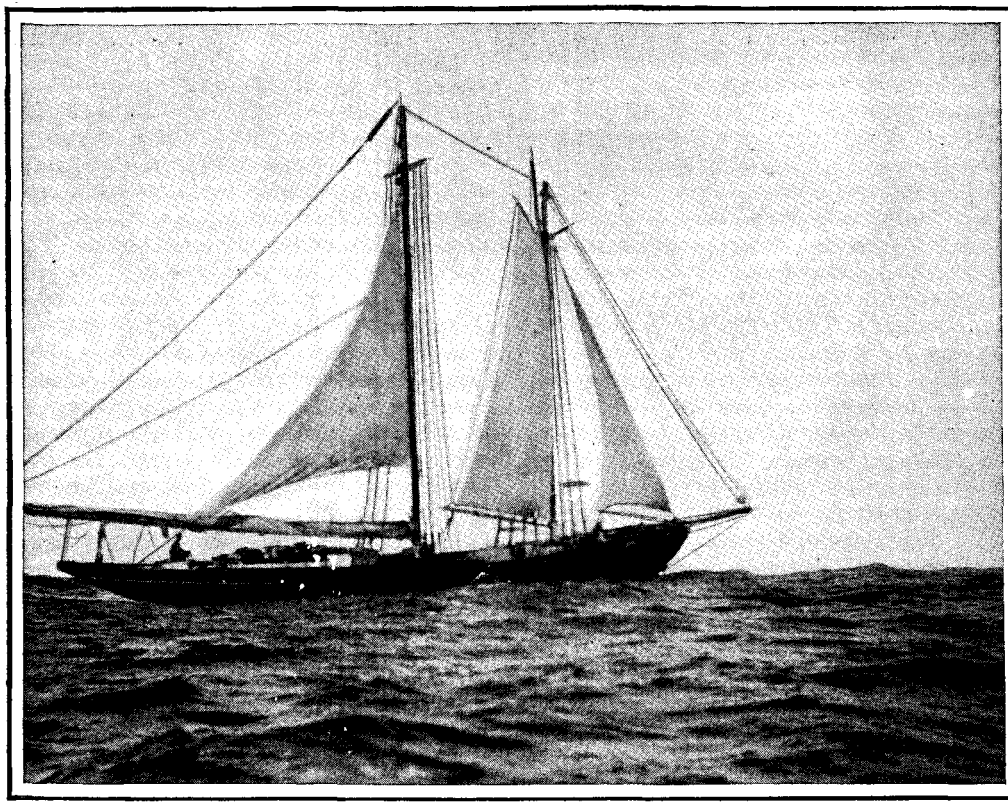
later set again. Three tons of fish was the reward. By three o'clock we were on our way to New York, cleaning fish on the way.

So successful had Captain Young been in creating a demand for tilefish that other boats were already being fitted out. As a matter of fact, we spoke one just as we started back. Her captain announced that he had fifteen thousand pounds of tilefish aboard. He was after more before he returned. Seeing that so much interest had been aroused, Captain Young decided that his work had been accomplished. After unloading the fourth catch he returned with the Stranger to Gloucester.

The eleven thousand pounds of fish brought in by the Stranger on her last trip were sold almost immediately at seven cents a pound. Although the Bureau of Fisheries announced that it was willing to make good to Captain Young any amount he had lost, they were told that the four trips had netted a fair return, and that no loss had resulted.

The tilefish lives within eighty or ninety miles of the coast of New England and New Jersey. It is similar in shape to the bass, but is more brilliant in its marking. It is from two to four feet long, and weighs from ten to forty pounds. Living as it does in deep water, it is adapted to withstand a pressure of close to three hundred pounds to the square inch. Consequently, when it is hauled to the surface, the internal pressure distorts the fish to some extent. As it approaches the surface it becomes less and less energetic. Finally it floats upon its back, unable to put up an effective battle. Sometimes when several have been hooked close together they will float the line up to the surface. The tilefish is white underneath, and its back is gray, speckled with gold. Its fins are iridescent, its eyes are large, and its mouth has a single row of small, sharp teeth.

The Bureau of Fisheries is enthusiastic about Captain Young's success. The fish should sell at a low price because of the ease of capturing it. If the tilefishing fleet grows so large as to overstock the New York market, the Bureau of Fisheries will see that the surplus is marketed in other large cities of the East.



"THE STRANGER"

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RECENT CHANGES IN THE ART OF WAR[1]

BY FRANCIS V. GREENE

MAJOR-GENERAL UNITED STATES VOLUNTEERS

DURING its earlier years this institution, the United States Military Academy, had a somewhat precarious existence. It was the custom at brief intervals from 1820 to 1860 for some member of Congress to introduce a bill to abolish the institution, and there was always a very considerable minority in favor of such a measure. These Representatives faithfully reflected the sentiments of their constituents, in whose minds the idea of a trained soldier had much in common with the idea of a king, the idea of a nobility, the idea of an aristocracy, the idea of a privileged class. All these had been abolished in this country by the Constitution of the United States. Why not abolish the trained soldier and extirpate the very thought of military discipline? Such trained soldiers as they and their fathers had been had been their enemies, so they thought. They forgot that to the aid of the trained soldiers of France, at a critical period of the Revolution, we were largely indebted for our independence. The opinion was well-nigh universal that it was the fierce fighting of the untrained farmers at Lexington, and Bunker Hill, and Saratoga, which had defeated the British regulars and the well-trained Hessians. There was a widespread feeling that military training should not be permitted in this land of liberty—that it was as unnecessary as it was hateful. This was part of that hostility to a standing army, and reliance upon a militia, which our forefathers brought from England nearly three hundred years ago, and which has its roots still further back in Anglo-Saxon history. Fortunately, however, the opponents of the Military Academy throughout the first sixty years of its existence could never muster a full majority of votes necessary to carry out their plan of abolishing the institution; and so it remained to keep alive the military art, which otherwise would have been lost in this country during the first half of the nineteenth century.

The Military Academy now needs no defenders, although it is still engaged in training soldiers and teaching the military art. In view of its unique position as an institution of learning and of military instruction, it would seem that a meeting of a historical society within these walls, and surrounded by this environment, should not adjourn without taking some note of the military history which is being made now from day to day, in what is by common consent considered to be the greatest war and the greatest crisis of history.

RECENT CHANGES IN THE ART OF WAR

I think it is not an exaggeration to say that there have been greater changes in the art of war during the last ten years—since the war between Russia and Japan—than in the previous fifty years; and more important changes during those fifty years, which take us back to the Crimean War, than in the previous five centuries—that is to say, since the first use of gunpowder. It is only during the last ten years that the aeroplane, the automobile, the submarine torpedo boat, and the wireless telegraphy have been so perfected as to be effectively useful in warfare. We only dimly perceive, as yet, the relation between these agencies and the stupendous scale of actual military operations. In the preceding fifty years the railway, the steamboat, the electric telegraph, had first come into military use, and had gradually reached their complete perfection. It has often been said that had these means been at the disposal of Napoleon he would have conquered the world. This is mere opinion and speculation, but it is a fact that the means of transportation and of communicating intelligence were substantially the same in the time of Napoleon as in the time of Cæsar. In each case the rapidity of transmitting orders was limited by the speed of a horse, and the facilities for moving troops were controlled by the strength of a man's legs. The only advance in methods of warfare from Cæsar's time to that of Napoleon was in the use of gunpowder and the improvement of the weapons resulting therefrom. But from Napoleon's time to the present the art of war has benefited by all the wonderful improvements in the mechanic arts and sciences; all of which are the servants of war as well as peace. Instantaneous communication of intelligence, marvelously rapid transportation of troops, ability to feed and supply unheard-

[1] A recent address before a meeting of the New York Historical Association at West Point, New York. General Greene is a graduate of West Point, and served with distinction in the regular army until he resigned to enter civil life. He re-entered the service as a volunteer during the Spanish War, and attained the rank of Major-General of Volunteers.

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of numbers of men in the field, flying through the air to detect the enemy's movements, swimming under the water to destroy the enemy's ships, hurling projectiles of unprecedented size to destroy his forts, caring for hundreds upon thousands of wounded, which but for the automobile would have perished on the field—these are some of the more important methods of warfare which now for the first time are being used to full effect, and which differentiate the war of to-day from all previous wars, and from those of comparatively recent years almost as much as from those of antiquity.

THE CENSORSHIP

The Crimean War of 1853–5 was the first war of any consequence after the discovery of the practical applications of steam and electricity, and it was in this war that the war correspondent first came into prominence. The system of sending telegraphic reports of military movements in battle direct to the newspapers by correspondents actually present with the troops engaged was still further developed during our Civil War, 1861–5, the war between France and Prussia, 1870–1, and the war between Russia and Turkey in 1877–8. More than eighty correspondents accompanied the Russian army during this war in Turkey. Among them were British army officers of distinction, but the most celebrated were civilians like MacGahan, Forbes, and Millet, who had had much experience in former wars, and were competent military critics and brilliant writers. In the next great war, that between Russia and Japan, in 1904–5, neither war correspondents nor the officers representing other Governments in the position of military attachés were allowed to accompany the troops at the front. They were sometimes personally conducted by a Japanese staff officer over the ground where a battle had recently been fought, and the Japanese officer gave a lecture explaining the course of the battle. It is needless to say that this is a very different matter from seeing the battle with one's own eyes. In the present war the censorship has been carried to an extent never before attempted. No independent observers are permitted to accompany the troops, and each Government endeavors so far as is possible to restrict the news to that which itself gives out from time to time as a summary of accomplished results. We have no exact information as to any details.

There is of course much to be said in favor of the censorship, the purpose of which is to prevent the enemy from obtaining information. On the other hand, it is probable that the enemy succeeds in obtaining the information by means of spies, whereas the public is kept in ignorance of events which if known might increase the efforts to put forth the country's greatest strength.

The principal facts in relation to the military movements are of course known: the advance of the Germans across Belgium into northern France, and the resulting deadlock in trenches three hundred miles long from the North Sea to the foot of the Alps; the advance of the Russians into Galicia, the subsequent retreat through Poland and the loss of the fortresses on the western boundary of Russia; the bombardment of the Turkish forts on the Dardanelles, and the inconclusive military operations on land in that vicinity—all these principal events are known and undisputed, but the professional details relating to the manner in which they were accomplished have not as yet been made public.

What we do know, however, reveals a war of unprecedented magnitude, conducted in a manner altogether novel.

MAGNITUDE OF THE ARMIES

The fabled stories of the countless hordes that crossed the Hellespont with Xerxes and Alexander have been far surpassed by the actual numbers of the forces engaged in the present conflict. The accompanying figures have been complied from the usual statistical books of reference in the hope of presenting these facts in the most condensed and intelligible form.

The figures are certainly startling. In Europe seventy-eight per cent of the population at war, in all the world fifty-six per cent of the population involved in the conflict; 13,000,000 men actually under arms; 2,000,000 killed, nearly 4,000,000 wounded, more than 2,000,000 prisoners. We cannot grasp these figures, but we can get some idea of what they mean by comparing them with the results of previous wars. We were accustomed to speak of our Civil War as the greatest conflict of modern times; but apparently it was only one-tenth the magnitude of the present conflict. At no time did the number of men actually under arms, North and South, exceed 1,300,000 men, and the total numbers of those killed in battle and who died of wounds on the Northern side was 110,070, and on the

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Southern side probably not more than 80,000; so that in four years of war then the destruction of life was less than one-tenth of the destruction of life during a little more than one year at the present time. In the Napoleonic wars from 1796 to 1815 the largest army ever assembled was that which Napoleon led into Russia in 1812, and this numbered somewhat in excess of 500,000. The German armies fighting to-day in Russia on the east and in France on the west are more than six times as large.

How are these vast armies supplied with food and rations? The answer is, in brief, by modern mechanism, and chiefly by the steam railway and the motor truck. The steam railway has been used in all the wars of the last sixty years, but this is the first war in which the motor truck has been employed; and it would appear that without the motor truck the supplying of such vast armies would have been quite impossible. Hitherto the distribution of supplies from the nearest point on a railway to the actual position of the troops has been accomplished by means of wagons and animals, but the limiting capacity of the wagon has been, depending upon the condition of the roads, from 500 pounds to one ton per animal, and the food of these animals was always no inconsiderable part of the load; the distance covered rarely exceeded twenty miles per day. On the other hand, the motor truck with a few gallons of oil, lighter than water, can carry at least four times as heavy a load as a wagon of equal size drawn by animals, and can carry it at a speed at least ten times as great. As compared with animal traction the motor truck would appear to have a capacity, for military purposes, of 40 to 1. While much was expected of the motor truck in time of war, it is doubtful if any one anticipated such extraordinary results in the distribution of food and munitions as it has actually accomplished.

In the movement of troops in the immediate vicinity of a battlefield equally novel results have been accomplished. Full details are lacking, but it seems to be an established fact that in the movements through Belgium and in northern France several thousand men were moved with great rapidity for a distance of several miles in motor cars and brought into action at a decisive point. Such rapid movement of troops on or near a battlefield had never been possible in any previous war.

In brief, it would seem as if the internal combustion engine as applied to the automobile has almost revolutionized that branch of the military science which has been called Logistics.

ECONOMICS

The modern industrial situation is the outgrowth of the last fifty years, and largely of the last two decades. It is more highly developed and specialized than at the date of any previous war in Europe, and the vast numbers of men employed and the enormous quantities of ammunition consumed have made it necessary that almost the entire industrial development of the nation should in this war be devoted to military purposes. The effect of this is that resources in coal and iron—the basis of all industries—are distinct military factors; and the relative strength of the contending nations in this respect is somewhat unexpected. Germany was already the first of European states in the production of iron and steel. By overrunning and holding Belgium and northern France, and getting possession of the mines, iron works, and manufacturing establishments in those regions, the startling result has been accomplished that Germany and her ally have greater resources in fuel and iron than all the rest of Europe combined. Although her ships have been driven from the ocean and her foreign commerce completely paralyzed, the internal resources of herself, her ally, and her conquered territory have apparently been sufficient to keep her supplied with ammunition, while her enemies, with the markets of the world open to them in addition to their own resources, have failed to keep their troops supplied with the necessary ammunition, without which, of course, war cannot be carried on. It is said that the chief cause of the long series of Russian defeats during the last five months of the Russians' retreat of nearly four hundred miles from Galicia across Poland and well into Russia, a retreat which, though characterized by great skill in saving the army intact, has been disastrous from a military and political standpoint, and from the enormous losses in men and destruction of property—it is said that the prime cause of this disaster was the lack of ammunition. Similarly, in England, notwithstanding her industrial development, which at one time placed her first among industrial nations, it is said that it is the lack of ammunition which has prevented her from putting into the field

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in France more than 600,000 men, although it is reported that her enlistments number nearly 3,000,000 men. Her troops occupy only thirty or forty miles of the fighting line, whereas her allies occupy nearly a thousand miles—300 miles on the western front and 650 miles on the eastern front.

Strength of material resources has always, of course, been an element of the first importance in the result of a war; the novelty in this war is that material resources are estimated chiefly in capacity to produce manufactured products in the form of arms and ammunition. The number of men that can be put into the field is no longer the controlling factor. The enormous size of artillery and weight of projectiles which motor traction now makes it possible to take into the field, and the immense quantities of bullets and cartridges required to feed machine guns, have called for a tonnage of munitions which has absolutely no precedent. Hence the military strength of an agricultural nation like Russia is far inferior to that of an industrial nation like Germany, which has less than half the population. The mechanical spirit of the age pervades all military questions, and may be said to be the dominant factor in deciding these questions. This fact was known and appreciated before the war broke out, but fresh manifestations of the applications of this fact are becoming evident with each succeeding month of the titanic contest.

The financial condition of a nation is a part of its economic strength. Nations have continued to fight, as we did in the Revolution, after they are completely bankrupt; and other nations have fought, as we did in the Civil War and as Prussia did in the eighteenth century, until their paper money or their debased coinage was worth less than half of its nominal value; but the extraordinary development of the international credit system during the last few years has made national bankruptcy a more terrible catastrophe now than at any previous period. With this in mind it was freely predicted two years ago that a great war in Europe was impossible because it would produce bankruptcy, and therefore could not be financed. When war did break out, it was again predicted—and for the same reasons—that it must necessarily be of very brief duration. Both predictions have been proved erroneous. The war is already long and the end is no more in sight than it was a year ago. The financial transactions are on a scale even more stupendous than the numbers of men engaged, and the increase in national debts fairly staggers the imagination. Approximately $20,000,000,000 have already been borrowed, and there is more to come.

If, however, we consider these figures relatively to the population and the estimated wealth of the nations engaged in war, we find that they are not unprecedented. Per capita, the debts are no greater than those of England and France at the close of the Napoleonic wars. Moreover, the per capita basis is not the only, and perhaps not the most important, basis of comparison. Wealth has increased far more rapidly than population in the last hundred years; so that the debts at the present time are considerably less in the percentage of accumulated wealth than was our debt fifty years ago, or the European debts a hundred years ago. It is of course within the bounds of possibility that the war may continue until one or more than one of the nations involved becomes hopelessly bankrupt. But all, or nearly all of them, have still vast sources of credit untouched. It is beyond any question a fact that the military operations have not been anywhere restricted by financial considerations. Questions of finance have not made any change in the art of war, except as they have contributed through enormous resources of credit to make it possible to carry on military operations on a scale of such unprecedented magnitude.

TACTICS OF THE THREE ARMS

Now let us turn to the more strictly military questions and see what lessons this war has taught, and how it has changed the conduct of battle. From Napoleon's time to the present war the manner of conducting a battle did not substantially change; there were three distinct stages of battle in which each of the three arms performed its distinctive part. First, the cavalry kept in touch with the enemy, and discovered his movements. Second, the battle was opened by an artillery duel in which it was sought to silence the enemy's artillery and to shake the morale of his infantry. Third, the final and decisive stage was the infantry attack, first at long range, then an advance to shorter range, and ending possibly in a hand-to-hand contest. At a critical moment the cavalry might be sent in to turn the scale with a vigorous charge; and in case of the enemy's retreat

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the cavalry was sent in pursuit, in the hope of converting the retreat into a rout.

All this has been greatly modified, if not completely changed, during the present war. The cavalry is no longer the only means of keeping in touch with the enemy and discovering his position. This is far more completely and satisfactorily done by means of the aeroplane and the air-ship. These soar above the enemy's position, and the aviators make sketches of it, take photographs of it, count or estimate the enemy's numbers, and return with the speed of a bird to report the facts to the commanding general. It is perhaps too much to say that the cavalry has ceased to be the eyes of the army, but it is certainly true that its rôle in this respect has greatly diminished. Of its rôle in battle it appears that on one occasion a brigade or a division of English cavalry was effectively used at a critical point during the retreat through Belgium and northern France in the first weeks of the war; but, so far as the public accounts inform us, the part played by Uhlans, Cossacks, Chasseurs, Lancers, Hussars, and Dragoons is almost insignificant in comparison with previous wars. It does not appear that the practice of using cavalry as mounted infantry, fighting on foot, or for the purpose of making raids around the enemy's rear, both of which were carried to such a degree of perfection during the Civil War, has at any time been made use of during the present war. It would seem, therefore, as if the cavalry arm was much less necessary to an army now than hitherto. It is another case of the animal giving place to a machine, which is so characteristic of the present age, in war as well as in peace. It was anticipated that the use of aeroplanes as scouts would lead to spectacular battles in the air. A few of these have been reported, and there is no question as to their spectacular and tragic nature. The casualties are of only one class, killed; there are no wounded, no missing. The number of such encounters, however, is comparatively small, having reference to the enormous amount of valuable work which the aeroplanes have thus performed.

Artillery. The rôle of the artillery has apparently increased in importance as much as that of the cavalry has decreased. Again it is a case of improved mechanism. The size of the projectile and its range have been increased to an extent which was not possible before the day of the mechanical tractor and its internal combustion engine. On the one hand, these enormous projectiles have been able to destroy permanent fortifications at very long ranges, and, on the other hand, shrapnel has been fired at long range with such rapidity and accuracy as to annihilate a line of infantry and to make an infantry advance across open ground impossible. If statements apparently authentic are to be believed, it is a question whether the artillery has not at times taken the place of the infantry as the principal fighting arm by which the battle is decided. It has been stated that of the French wounded upwards of eighty per cent have been disabled by shrapnel. If this is true, it is a complete change in the conduct of battle, because hitherto it was the bullet wounds which were upwards of eighty per cent. Battles are gained by putting the men of the enemy out of action, and if four-fifths of this injury is accomplished by artillery, then it is the artillery and not the infantry which is the most important arm in deciding the issue.

The manner of handling and firing the piece has also completely changed. The gunner no longer sees the enemy; the piece is concealed in a thicket or behind brush. The gun-carriage does not recoil, the recoil of the piece being absorbed by pistons and cylinders filled with oil. The gunner gets his instructions as to azimuth and altitude from one of the battery officers located with a range-finder in a tree, on top of a house, or in some other elevated position from which the enemy can be seen. Finally, in this war, for the first time, the aeroplane comes to the assistance of the gunner and helps him to correct the range and the direction; flying over the enemy and discovering his position, the aviator drops a small bomb which leaves a vertical trail of white smoke, from which the battery officer, with his instruments of precision, obtains the correct distance and direction. It is even said that wireless messages have been sent from the aviator to the battery commander.

Infantry. The most salient fact in this war in regard to infantry is the manner in which it was used by the Germans during the battles in Belgium and France in the early days of the war. It was almost a reversion to the shock tactics of Frederick and Napoleon. It had been observed by foreign officers present at the German maneuvers in recent years that the infantry was sent forward to the attack in such close formation as would be murderous in the face of rapid-

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fire rifles in actual warfare. It was frequently remarked that such assaults were well enough for maneuvers, but that nothing of the kind would be attempted in real war. It appears, however, that they were attempted, and that, although the losses were simply appalling, they were successful in the first few weeks of the war; in fact, that the success of the first rush through Belgium was due to the impetuosity of these infantry attacks in close formation, combined with the volume and rapidity of the shrapnel fire. When, however, the Western allies had united their forces so as to be numerically equal to the assailants, then these assaults failed and were abandoned. The final stage is a deadlock, which has continued now for more than twelve months, with two lines of infantry trenches, approximately three hundred miles long, with the ocean on the left flank and the mountains on the right flank, and the lines at various points a few hundred yards or even less apart. These trenches are deep; they are supplemented with lines of approach and with underground habitations; and it is even said that for long distances they are made of concrete. It is reported that the troops occupying them number at least 2,500,000 men on each side. This is more than 8,000 to the mile, or nearly five men to the yard, more than equivalent to a double rank formation, in close order with elbows touching, from end to end. Compared with these the celebrated lines of Torres Vedras in Portugal and of Petersburg in Virginia sink almost into insignificance. Imagine a continuous line in double rank across the State of New York from the ocean to Lake Ontario.

From these long lines across Belgium and France the opposing forces have now faced each other for a twelvemonth. There have been sporadic attempts on each side to dislodge the other, but without success. Whether there can be such a concentration of artillery fire as to destroy the trenches, and of infantry fire as to break through the opposing line, remains to be seen.

In the operations on the eastern theater of war we have less complete accounts as to the handling of the troops. There seem to have been excellent maneuvering and stubborn fighting on both sides, but no long lines of trenches, no deadlock, no destruction of fortifications. As already stated, the issue there seems to have been determined by the lack of ammunition on the Russian side.

Machine Guns. One other feature connected with infantry requires special notice, and that is the use of machine guns. They are not entirely novel, for a mitrailleuse was used in 1870; but it was not then of great importance, because its mechanism was defective, and because it was impossible to transport sufficient quantities of ammunition to keep it supplied. The mechanism of the present machine gun seems to be perfect, and the motor car now makes it possible to bring up the thousands of cartridges which it consumes in a few minutes. Operated by three men, and firing easily three hundred pounds per minute, it produces a concentration of fire far surpassing anything possible by the ordinary rifle. It has been used with great effect, and apparently it will be used with greater numbers in future wars, and will take its place permanently as part of the infantry armament. It must necessarily modify the manner in which infantry is used in battle.

Engineers. It does not appear that there has been anything novel in the building of bridges or the destruction of them except the magnitude of the operations, corresponding to the magnitude of the armies. In regard to fortifications, those in Belgium were destroyed by the enemy's fire, those in Russia were abandoned without defense, those in France have not been attacked, those on the Dardanelles have successfully resisted a fierce attack and prevented the capture of Constantinople. It is easy to draw erroneous impressions from the destruction of the Belgian forts. In the first place, they delayed the German advance for nearly twenty days, deranged the German plan of campaign at its outset, and were largely instrumental in saving Paris. To that extent they accomplished an important purpose. In the second place, they were built nearly forty years ago of iron and concrete, and while they were sufficiently strong to resist the cannon of those days, yet in consequence of the increase in the size of the cannon and the weight and range of projectiles, this particular form of fortification had become obsolete. The fortifications around Paris are more modern, and if attacked will probably show much greater resistance. Should the French drive the Germans back to their forts around Metz, the value of fortifications will probably be shown even more conclusively than on the Dardanelles. It is a mistake to assert that this war has shown

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that fortifications are no longer of any importance.

WOUNDS AND SICKNESS

The number of sick is seldom referred to, and apparently it is very small. In our Civil War the deaths from sickness were nearly twice as many as from wounds; but the modern methods for preventing typhoid and malaria seem to have been used in this war with great success. As the killed are numbered in millions, the immunity from sickness means the saving of millions of lives. As to wounds, it has been recently stated in a German paper that the deaths were less than two per cent, the recoveries with permanent disability about eight per cent, and the complete recoveries about ninety per cent. In our Civil War the deaths among the wounded in hospitals were about ten per cent, or more than five times as many as in the present war. For the enormous saving of life among the wounded in hospital we are indebted to antiseptic surgery.

The ratio of killed to wounded was formerly about 1 to 5; now apparently it is as 1 to 1¾. Whether this is due to shrapnel fire, to machine guns, or to the basis on which the reports are made cannot now be stated. It is possible that the number of wounded is only those who are permanently disabled and does not include those who completely recover and return to duty. It is also possible that the number of wounded has been so enormous that a large proportion could not be removed and have been left to die on the field. Whatever the cause, all reports of casualties show that the number of killed as compared with those wounded is more than twice as great as hitherto. On the other hand, the number of wounded left on the field is far less than it would have been but for the use of automobiles.

NAVAL OPERATIONS

This war has again shown how important a factor is the control of the sea. Within a few months after its outbreak the naval superiority of Great Britain enabled her to destroy every war-ship of her enemies that was on the high seas, to paralyze the enemy's commerce, to keep open her own commerce with every part of the world, and to maintain uninterrupted her military lines of communication with the Continent and with her allies. The German fleet has remained idle and useless in a harbor throughout the war.

Germany has endeavored to restore the balance by a submarine warfare which is absolutely novel both in the mechanism of the submarine and in the magnitude of the destruction accomplished. The total of ships destroyed appears to be in excess of 300, total tonnage about 600,000, lives lost about 6,000. In the list are several war-ships, many neutral ships, some of the most modern and splendid passenger ships and freight ships. Of the lives lost nearly one-half were those of non-combatants.

These figures are absolutely large, but relatively small. The merchant tonnage of Great Britain is more than 20,000,000; the destruction by submarines is less than three per cent, and considerably less than new vessels built since the outbreak of war. The number of lives lost, in comparison with those killed in battle, is insignificant. The damage done to vessels of war by submarines does not appear to have been sufficient to produce any serious effect on the result of the war.

It is therefore a question whether the submarine is a really important factor in a *military* sense. It has given rise to endless diplomatic disputes, but that it has in any way affected the issue of the war is not evident as yet. The question of its exact military value will doubtless be widely discussed during the coming winter. To say that it has rendered the battle-ship useless is certainly wide of the mark. One fact, however, is definitely established, and that is the risk of operation; it is said that more than fifty of the German submarines have been sunk with all on board. How many have been built during the war is not known, but at the outbreak of war Germany had twenty-seven in commission and eighteen building. The mortality is evidently enormous.

AERIAL OPERATIONS

The use of aeroplanes in place of cavalry and as aids to artillery has already been referred to. As a military arm, capable of inflicting serious loss upon the enemy, they have as yet not been sufficiently developed. The costly Zeppelin air-ships, from which so much was expected, have made raids in which several hundred innocent men and women and children have been killed; but this is not war. Similarly cruel but ineffectual have been the bomb-dropping aeroplanes which have raided Paris.

The most splendid target for aeroplanes or air-ships has been the great fleet in Kiel

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Harbor, where the battle-ships and cruisers are so close together, and where the destruction caused by bombs dropping on the decks or in the funnels would have been of the highest military importance. But apparently this target is beyond the range of aerial mechanism at the present time, for no mention has been made of any such attempt.

A minor use, of actual military value, has been the dropping of steel arrows from an aeroplane. A wound from one of them is necessarily fatal, and a German general was reported killed in this manner about a year ago. But whether the percentage of hits was too small, or the capacity of the factories is absorbed in making ammunition for artillery and infantry, or from whatever other cause, this use of air navigation has not been developed.

SUMMARY

And now to summarize the novelties of this war. Thanks to the censor, the preceding figures are nothing but estimates, and the facts are not beyond dispute. We have little or no professionally accurate data on this war. We have, however, an abundance of information, approximating accuracy, sufficient to justify us in forming definite conclusions. In a word, I should say that the characteristic of this war is Applied Mechanics. It is this which has made possible the assembling, feeding, and supplying of such unprecedented numbers of men. It is this which has made possible the magnitude of the operations, the celerity of the movements, the enormous losses in battle. It may be said that all wars have depended on applied mechanics, and this is true; but never in the same sense as now, because never have the applications of physical science been so important as now and never have such fundamental advances been made in a short period as during the last few years. During the last decade a prime mover of the first importance has reached commercial perfection which seems destined to produce results as far-reaching as steam and electricity, viz., the internal combustion engine. This prime mover spells aeroplane in the air, automobile on the earth, submarine in the water; and these three machines have not only introduced changes, but have determined the conduct of the war.

Next to these machines, hardly if at all secondary to them in importance, are the changes in weapons; shrapnel fire, large howitzers, machine guns.

Of minor importance is the use of asphyxiating gases, the modern successors of the long-discarded "Greek fire" and Chinese "stink-pot." They have produced cruel suffering, but no important military results.

Finally, what lessons are we in these United States to draw from this war? In what manner and to what extent do these recent changes in the art of war affect us? The answer is that if we are to avoid the risk of a financial panic of such magnitude as has never been imagined, of the payment of enormous indemnities, and the possible loss of our freedom, than we must have—

First, a navy somewhat larger than that of any other nation except one, and such a swarm of submarines as will enable us to make some sort of defense against the greatest navy.

Second, a sufficient number of trained soldiers to prevent landing on our coasts in case the enemy should defeat or elude our navy; or, in case we do not succeed in preventing a landing, that we delay the advance until we can develop our immense latent resources in men and materials.

Third, the co-ordination of our industrial development with our military requirements; so that in case of war we can utilize our vast economic strength.

We have more accumulated wealth than any other two nations; we have a greater mileage of railways than all Europe; of motor cars and trucks we possess probably twice as many as all the nations of Europe combined; of iron and steel, we produce as much as the total of any other three nations, and of copper more than all the rest of the world; of telephones in use we have three times as many as the aggregate of all the nations now at war; and of telegraph lines as many miles as any other two nations. Here are elements of military strength which, properly utilized in connection with a sufficiency of trained soldiers, will protect us from defeat—possibly make us immune from attack. But our trained soldiers are barely 1 per 1,000 of population, while those of possible enemies are 60 per 1,000, and there is no correlation between our mines, our factories, our means of transportation and communication on the one hand, and our military establishment and plans of defense on the other. That we are quick and resourceful in an emergency is universally conceded, but to rely upon this in place of military training and proper co-ordination of our economic resources is to invite certain disaster.

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A GRACE BEFORE READING

BY HELEN COALE CREW

Myriad-leavèd as an elm;
Starred with shining word and phrase;
Wondrous words that overwhelm,
Phrases vivid, swift, divine;
Gracious turn of verse and line—
O God, all praise
For a book; its tears, its wit,
Its faults, and the perfect joy of it!

Oh, to dip
Headlong in! Cleaving down
Through lucent depths of verb and noun
To the rare thought that lies
Embedded; and arise
Pearl-laden toward the skies,
Blowing bright foam of adjectives about one's lip!

Sappho—burning heart of her;
Sweet Saint Francis, star-besprent;
Young Kit Marlowe, sped and spent;
Montaigne, royal gossiper;
Brave Munchausen, dauntless liar;
Lamb's dear whimsey; Shelley's flight;
Hot Catullus all afire;
Shakespeare, chiefest heart's delight!

O God, all praise!
That in brief, swift days
Thou mad'st the world's green gardens, and forsook
Thy labor, leaving man and time to make the book!

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BIG BUSINESS JUNIOR IN AMERICA

SECOND ARTICLE

THE MAIL ORDER BUSINESS

BY THEODORE H. PRICE

A RETAIL store, or shop, as the English call it, that was visited in a single morning by 93,000 customers, each of whom spent an average of $7.43, or a total of $690,900 in cash, is doubtless as inconceivable to most people as it was to me before I saw it.

An organization which could handle that many orders and a stock out of which they could be instantly filled, so that the majority of them were packed and shipped before nightfall, is almost unthinkable to any one who has had any experience of the infinitude of detail connected with a retail business and especially with a retail business that undertakes to sell everything from a paper of pins to a grand piano, or from a garden rake to a mowing-machine.

Yet this is what the mail order business in the United States not only aspires to be but is, and not the least of its benefits is that it has given a new distinction to shopkeeping and raised business to the dignity of a science.

By force of a curious tradition of society, the retail merchant in America was for many years denied the social recognition given to the wholesale dealer, and the professional man or scholar took precedence over both.

This was probably an inheritance from Europe, where a landowning aristocracy patronized letters and made "trade" unfashionable; but it is also attributable to the idea that shrewd bargaining was necessary to success in trade, especially the retail trade, and that this bargaining implied practices that were unworthy of a gentleman because they were essentially deceitful.

The legal doctrine of *caveat emptor*, "let the buyer beware," seemed to recognize the right of the seller to misrepresent his goods, and the old story of the devout Yankee grocer who enjoined his clerk "to come to prayers after you have sanded the sugar and watered the molasses" is another expression of the theory that dishonesty was to be expected of the commercial classes.

The successful mail order business is the direct negation of this theory, for exact and truthful representation is its corner-stone, and the complete confidence of the buyer in the absolute honesty of the seller is indispensable to its stability.

But honesty and mutual confidence are not all that is required to make a mail order business successful. There must be the scientific skill that is shown in a large and nicely balanced organization, the knowledge and ability to buy or manufacture so that goods can be sold at a fair price, the willingness to accept small profits, and, most important of all, a breadth of vision that recognizes that the permanency of any economic institution is directly dependent upon the reality and value of the economic service rendered.

It is for these reasons that the business of selling by mail has immensely advanced the ethical standards of trade and the science of commercial distribution in the United States.

The growth of the business was necessarily slow at the start because the goods are sold on description and paid for before the buyer sees them.

To secure trade on these conditions, it was first necessary to educate people to visualize an article from a description or picture, and then to believe in the honesty of the representations made and the willingness and ability of the seller to live up to the guarantees given. Any one who has had experience in learning to read a plan or blueprint or in forming a mental conception from written words will realize how difficult it has been to accustom those who were used to buying after actual inspection of the thing bought to make their choice from a catalogue. Even after this had been accomplished and the public imagination had been trained to select from the printed page rather than the counter, the slow-growing plant of confidence had to be brought to full fruition, and this was the work of years.

Within the last decade, however, the business of selling by mail has found itself and has now reached proportions that entitle it to be considered as one of the most robust and promising Youngsters in the Big Business household of the country.

Strictly speaking, the term "mail order" is a misnomer except as applied to the distribution of the catalogues and the method by which the goods are ordered. Many people

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have the idea that the mail order business is one in which the goods are both bought and shipped by mail, but, as a matter of fact, most of the things sold are shipped as freight; and while the establishment of the parcel post has made it possible to forward the lighter articles by mail, the great bulk of the traffic still goes in freight cars.

Many of the department stores and some of the wholesale houses who usually sell through salesmen or on sample do more or less business by mail, but the strictly mail order concerns are comparatively few in number, and most of them are now well known to the public.

They may be divided into two classes:

1. Those who do a retail business and sell directly to the consumer.
2. Those who do a wholesale business only and sell exclusively to retailers who deal with the consumer.

A fairly well-informed guess at the total business thus transacted from catalogue would put it at about $300,000,000 a year, which does not include the mail order sales made by the concerns whose trade is mainly in goods that are visually offered.

I hesitate to go into the details or figures that have been so frankly and courteously furnished me by the heads of the various mail order establishments whom it has been my privilege to meet. To do so might suggest invidious comparisons or lead me into a seeming violation of confidence.

There is a wealth of commercial romance in the early history of the business, and the men who now direct and control it are in most cases distinguished for their public spirit and philanthropy, though whether they are public-spirited because they are in the mail order business or in the mail order business because they are public-spirited is difficult to determine, for I have come to believe that public service and the economical distribution of the things that society requires are closely related.

In every case the business has been developed from a very small beginning by men who had the imagination to see its possibilities and the courage to believe in themselves and their fellow-men.

At first they were ridiculed for entertaining the idea that merchandise could be sold "sight unseen;" then they were told that the women, who do most of the retail buying in America, would not forego the pleasurable excitement of shopping; and finally, when they commenced to succeed, they were attacked because it was alleged that they were ruining the "home merchant" by underselling him. This last criticism need not be seriously considered. It is one that is always directed at any machine or organization that adds to human wealth or comfort by saving labor or increasing economic efficiency.

The first power looms were wrecked by the hand weavers of Lancashire because the men thought the labor saved would be unemployed; but an increased demand for the cheaper cloth soon provided work for twice the number of hands previously required. The use of the sewing-machine was opposed because the seamstresses maintained that it would deprive them of their livelihood; but their fears were baseless. And the opposition to the mail order business is just as unfounded and unwarranted. The truth is that any device which reduces the cost of the things men consume must add to the wealth of the community; and while it may result in the temporary displacement of some one class, it is ultimately to the advantage of all because it reduces the cost of living and adds to the comfort of existence.

Few indeed realize the extent to which the cost of living in this country is increased by the expense incidental to the distribution of goods under the older methods in vogue.

These methods used to involve the employment of three intermediaries. The manufacturer sold to the wholesaler, the wholesaler to the jobber, and the jobber to the retailer. While the jobber still survives in some lines of business, he has absorbed the functions of the wholesaler in most. For the purposes of this article, therefore, the words jobber and wholesaler may be regarded as interchangeable terms; both buy from the manufacturer and sell to the retailer; and the expense of distributing goods through other than mail order houses nowadays may be roughly estimated as follows, the basis being an article of merchandise sold by the manufacturer at one dollar:

Cost to wholesaler or jobber		$1.00
Net profit to wholesaler or jobber, 5 per cent on cost	.05	
Expenses of wholesaler or jobber, 15 per cent on selling price	.18	.23
Cost to retailer		$1.23
Net profit to retailer, 10 per cent on cost	.12	
Expenses of retailer, 23 per cent on selling price	.40	.52
Cost to consumer		$1.75

These figures are, of course, more or less guesswork, but they are submitted after con-

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sultation with a number of wholesalers, jobbers, and retailers who agree that they are fairly representative of the average of collective experience throughout the entire distributive trade of the country.

In the case of staple merchandise, such, for instance, as shirtings or canned tomatoes, the percentage of profit allowed is perhaps too high, but it is far less than must be calculated upon perishable goods or luxuries the demand for which is fickle or occasional. In a department store where the goods are sold on credit and delivered free at distant points "on approbation" the percentage of expense greatly exceeds the allowance made.

The cost of shipping twice over the same route is another addition to the expense of distribution that is not considered. Thus a wholesale merchant in Boston may sell cotton goods to a jobber in Chicago, who will in turn distribute them to retail dealers in Indiana and Ohio at the very places through which they traveled in going from Boston to Chicago.

This may be in a measure offset by the difference in freight rate on the longer haul and the economy of "car lot" shipments; but as against any saving in these items there are to be put the terminal charges and cost of rehandling at the place of secondary distribution.

The foregoing figures indicate that the consuming public in the United States pays about 75 per cent over the manufacturer's price, on the average, for most of the things bought. If this is so and the retail trade of the country averages only $200 per capita, which is a minimum, it aggregates twenty billion dollars, three-sevenths of which, or, say, eight and one-half billions, is the cost and profit of distribution, not including freight.

From the data furnished me I am led to conclude that the consumer who buys through an honest and well-managed retail mail order house saves about one-half of these costs and gets his goods at thirty-seven per cent, instead of seventy-five per cent, over the manufacturer's prices.

This calculation is as follows:

Cost to retail mail order house.....		$1.00
Net profit to mail order house, 10 per cent on cost.....	.10	
Expense of mail order house, 20 per cent on selling price.....	.27	.37
Cost to consumer.....		$1.37

as compared with $1.75 if bought through the local retailer.

It is true that those who buy from the mail order concern must pay freight, expressage, or parcel postage on their purchases, whereas they would be delivered free by the local retailer; but the cost of this delivery plus the freight paid must be included in the price charged. Moreover, the local retail dealer is rarely a manufacturer, whereas some of the largest mail order establishments are also manufacturers on a large scale and are able to share the manufacturer's profit with their customers.

One of the large mail order concerns has shoe sales of approximately $12,000,000 annually, and the greater part of this product is manufactured in its own factories.

All of them, both wholesale and retail, manufacture many of the goods they sell or are financially interested in the factories from which they buy, and the economies thus effected run into the millions.

The wholesale mail order house does business chiefly with the smaller retailer, who would otherwise have to be reached by traveling salesmen or put himself to the expense of "coming to town" to buy in person.

There are but two wholesale mail order concerns of the first magnitude in the United States, and their remarkable success seems to be largely due—

First, to the elimination of the "drummer" and his expense account;

Second, to the comprehensive and miscellaneous line of goods they catalogue and the volume of trade they are thus enabled to do.

They are both manufacturers on a large scale; but disregarding the profits earned in that way, we may compare their business with that of the wholesaler selling through traveling salesmen as follows:

Cost to wholesale mail order house..		$1.00
Net profit to wholesale mail order house, 5 per cent on cost.....	.05	
Expenses of wholesale mail order house, 10 per cent on selling price..	.11	.16
Cost to retailer.....		$1.16

as compared with $1.23, cost to retailer under the older method. The saving to the retailer who deals with the wholesale mail order house is, however, greater than these figures would indicate.

The small dealer who buys of the wholesale mail order house can, for instance, turn over his capital more frequently than if he buys from traveling salesmen two or three times a year. He can order from a catalogue as frequently as necessary, and instead

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of keeping a large stock that may become shopworn, can have a smaller one that is fresh and well assorted. He is, moreover, less subject to loss through a change in fashion, and can supply any sudden demand promptly by telegraph. These are all important considerations to the small dealer or the merchant who carries a " variety " stock.

The catalogue of one wholesale mail order concern contains over twelve thousand items to retail at five and ten cents each in addition to the list of staple goods.

To be able to select from such an assortment as this and to buy only as the goods are needed is a greater advantage to the proprietor of the " variety store " than would be inferred from a superficial study of the figures submitted.

The organization of the great mail order houses where from fifty to one hundred thousand letters are received each day and as many orders filled and shipped is a wonderful thing to see. The letters are opened by machinery, the remittances grouped and added mechanically, the letters and packages move from room to room over endless belts or through gravity chutes. The stock-rooms cover acres of floor space, and the goods are assembled and packed with an accuracy and speed that are remarkable. In one establishment messenger girls on rubber-tired roller-skates move about swiftly and noiselessly carrying messages from one department to another, and in all of them there is a branch post-office where Government employees make up the enormous mail that has to be handled, an express office for the express matter, and a freight house where the goods are loaded directly into the railway cars.

The detail of the business is enormous, and great speed and efficiency are necessary that it may be promptly and economically handled. In the retail houses the names of from four to six million customers are contained in a card index that is, so to speak, the very heart of the business, and this card index is being continually corrected and kept up to date.

It shows what the customer has bought from the beginning, whether he is the head of the family—and sometimes the other members of the family—how long he has lived at the address given, and any other information obtainable that is of value in dealing with him. To this list, which is carefully guarded, the wonderful catalogues that describe the goods offered are sent out by mail. A description of these catalogues is beyond my power and is unnecessary, for most people have seen them. They contain from 1,000 to 1,500 pages of closely printed matter which describes the thousands of articles offered for sale.

Elaborate instructions for self-measurement and transmission of orders are given, and every effort is made to diminish the difficulty of buying by mail.

To produce these catalogues, which are sent out twice a year, elaborate printing departments are maintained and kept constantly busy.

The catalogues cost from sixty to eighty cents each and another ten or twelve cents to mail. As from eight to ten million copies a year are distributed by the larger establishments, the outlay is enormous and is the chief item of expense connected with the business. In most establishments one catalogue will be sent to any person writing for it, but additional copies are sent only to those who have become customers, for it does not pay to supply catalogues regularly to those whose purchases are less than $10 or $12 a year.

All these features of the business are supremely interesting, but they are of subordinate importance in comparison with the reduction in the cost of living which it has made possible for those who choose to patronize it.

Thus far the facilities offered are used chiefly by the agricultural classes who live on the farms or in the smaller towns. Few of those who reside in the larger cities have as yet learned to resist the lure of the shop window or the pleasurable excitement of " shopping."

Although the last Census showed that 53.7 per cent of the population of the United States lived in the country or in towns of less than 2,500 inhabitants, it is probable that a large portion of the rural population still prefers to " go to town " to do its shopping.

The farmer goes to the village. Those who live in the village go to the nearest large city, and the residents of the smaller cities make one or two pilgrimages a year to New York or Chicago to buy what they think they cannot obtain at home.

It results that probably two-thirds of the money spent by consumers in the United States goes into the tills of the retail dealers in the more important cities.

As there were in 1910 only 229 cities in the United States with a population of 25,000 or over, it is plain that the home merchant in the

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small town suffers more from the competition of his fellow-merchant in the regional metropolis than from the "price-cutting" that is laid at the door of the "catalogue concerns."

It is also plain that the high cost of living in the United States is due not only to the expense of distribution by this method but to the waste of the buyer's time and energy which it entails. It may be useless to inveigh against the American habit of "shopping," but it certainly increases the breadwinner's burden enormously. The car-fares spent, the shoe leather worn out, the clothes that are torn and soiled, and, worst of all, the time and energy that are frittered away by the millions of women who are to be seen every day going from shop to shop in our larger cities is depressing to contemplate.

Reduced to a money equivalent, it would represent an enormous sum, to say nothing of the envy and unhappiness it brings to those who look longingly at things they cannot buy or the extravagance it induces in those who buy what they should not afford.

When I asked the head of one great mail order establishment why he had made no attempt to capture at least a small share of this great city business, he replied that it was impossible to educate those who can get to a shop in a street car up to the mental effort of buying from a catalogue.

He said that it seemed so much easier to spend a morning in picking over a stock of goods and buying something that was sent home in the evening than to spend fifteen minutes in selecting the things needed from a catalogue, that he has despaired of ever changing the habits of the American people in this respect.

Doubtless he knows his business, but I am optimist enough to believe that he has underestimated the willingness of our American women to learn methods of economic efficiency.

It is a weakness of American men to encourage feminine extravagance. When they can afford it, they are amused. When they can't, they growl, but make no effort to instruct their wives and daughters how to be intelligently economical.

A manufacturer who will make a scientific study of saving a few cents a day in his factory will laugh at his daughter for her extravagance and will not pay her the compliment of showing her how she might buy more intelligently.

In England and throughout Europe women are taught the value of money and goods far more thoroughly than they are here, and the result is the great co-operative establishments such as the "Army and Navy" and "Civil Service" stores in London for the better classes, and the "Union Co-ops" of Lancashire for the wage-earners.

These concerns do a business which in the aggregate far exceeds that handled by the mail order houses of this country, which are as yet the only equivalent we have for them.

Many of them also conduct a mail order business with thousands of customers who live in the remotest corners of the far-flung British Empire, in which respect at least one of our "catalogue" houses has for some years followed their example by maintaining an export department that already does a large trade with Spanish America and some parts of Asia and Africa.

There is a whole magazine story in the history and possibilities of the foreign mail order business in the United States, and I wish that I had the time and space to write it; but these articles are designed to point out the opportunities for young men in connection with the younger business organizations of this country, and I must stick to my text. It is plain that the mail order business greatly reduces the cost of living to those who avail themselves of the facilities it provides; and because it does this, it has become a permanent factor in our economic life.

It is equally plain, at least to me, that it has not as yet commenced to take the place that it is destined to occupy in the commercial organization of this country.

This is especially true of its relation to the retail trade of the cities and our export business with consumers in foreign countries.

As I have already pointed out, the retail sales in the United States aggregate at least $20,000,000,000 a year, or about $200 per capita.

The mail order concerns, wholesale and retail, sell about $300,000,000 a year, or, say, one and one-third per cent of the total.

Of our foreign business, the share that they handle is infinitesimal. The possibilities of the business are, therefore, obvious, and its great future appears to be in the direction of the urban and foreign trade; especially the former.

If I were a young man seeking an opportunity to make a place for myself among the captains of commercial enterprise in the United States, I think I should consider seriously whether I had the enthusiasm and ability neces-

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sary to convince those who live in cities that they could save a large portion of their money, time, and energy by buying from a catalogue instead of from a counter.

I am well aware that in saying this I am suggesting something that is considered impossible by those who know a business of which I am comparatively ignorant; but the greatest railway man of his day scoffed at the air-brake when it was first introduced, and it often happens that concentration makes for near-sightedness.

To me the economic value of the mail order method of distribution seems so great and so easily demonstrable that I refuse to believe that it will not appeal to the great majority of the American people, who, whether they live in the city or the country, are daily becoming more intelligent and alert in their study of life's problems.

THE BROKEN TALE

BY DONAL HAMILTON HAINES

"A COWARD, m'sieu?"

Pierre rested his paddle across his knee, took his pipe out of his mouth, and blew a speculative whiff of smoke over his shoulder.

"Well, no," he decided, as his paddle bit deep into the water. "I would not call him that. Once I would have called a man a coward, but not now. I have learned better."

Dr. Lambert let the barrel of his Winchester rest on the gunwale of the canoe and turned his head so that he could talk to his guide and still keep an eye on the shore ahead of him.

"Nonsense!" he exclaimed. "The world's full of cowards. You and I meet 'em every day. Men who are afraid of things, afraid with a black, gibbering fear—"

"Ah, yes," Pierre cut in eagerly, "but not afraid of everything. And it is only such a one who is really a coward. All men fear something. Myself, I am afraid of bear-traps. I think of them always in the woods. I cannot see one hanging in a store without breaking into a sweat. Yet I do not think that any one would call me a coward."

Lambert considered this thoughtfully.

"That theory is rather fresh," he admitted. "I think you live things before you turn them into theories, Pierre. Let's hear what lies back of this."

Pierre sent the canoe well out into the stream, shortened his stroke, and laid his pipe on the thwart beside him. The weather-beaten, grizzled face under the rim of the battered hat was very sober as he spoke.

"It is five years ago that I took two men into the woods from White Falls one July," he began. "They would be out at least a month, perhaps six weeks, they told me—or rather one of them told me. They wanted to catch trout, of course; but most they wanted me to take them into places where others did not go.

"I looked them over. M'sieu knows that we of the woods do not need to look long at a man. They were as unlike as an oak and a poplar, those two! Mattern, the one who had done the talking, was the biggest man I have ever had in my canoe; six feet four, and something like two hundred and thirty pounds. And strong! He was too strong; he broke things. But the other, Cartier, was thin; even the hair on his head was thin. He had a face like a bird, and wore glasses without rims. And one could see that he had never been in the woods before. Everything that he wore was new. As I said, I looked at them.

"'Messieurs,' I said, 'I can take you to Lost Lake. No man on this side of the mountains has gone to it for four years. But the trail is long, very rough, and there is danger.'

"Mattern slapped his great leg.

"'Good!' he cried. 'I'm too fat and Cartier's too thin. It will be just the thing for both of us. When can we start?'

"I looked at Cartier. He went white, m'sieu, but he did not let Mattern see.

"'Of course!' he agreed."

Pierre paused to investigate with his paddle a stalk of reed which floated past the canoe.

"M. Lambert has been to Lost Lake, perhaps?" he asked.

"Twelve years ago," answered the physician. "I couldn't do it now."

"No," Pierre agreed, honestly, "I think not. But five years ago it was not as easy as

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when m'sieu made the trip. People had not gone that way; the trail was unused.

"First, there were eight days in the canoe—all hard work upstream except the lakes, and bad cross-winds on every one of them. That year the water was very low. One could not pole or paddle. Sometimes we could not even wade and drag the canoes; we must carry around, and the way had to be cut with the ax.

"I am not sure that without Mattern we should have got through. He was like a bull in the rutting season; he could not find enough for his muscles to do between sun and sun. The best days for him were those which were full of the hardest work. And through it all he laughed like a boy, and thought it all the finest game he had ever played.

"But for Cartier those eight days were hell. He could barely keep up, though he had little of the hard work. At night he would be so tired that he could hardly stand, yet he could not sleep. Why? Because fear was upon him—fear like the certain knowledge of death. Mattern did not see it, but I saw clearly enough. Cartier was afraid of the wilderness; the weight of it was on him like a black shadow. At night I have seen him sitting by the fire, his eyes very wide, his hands twisting and untwisting, starting whenever a twig snapped or a charred log broke and sent up a little shower of sparks.

"A dozen times I was on the point of speaking to Mattern. I wished to tell him that, for Cartier's sake, we should turn back. But it was not my place to speak. And, further, I knew that Mattern would laugh, and he was one of those men whose laughter is worse than their curses. So I did not tell him, and we kept on.

"At the end of eight days we left the canoe and pushed ahead on foot. There was no trail. Sometimes we made no more than a couple of miles in half a day. And Mattern was forever shouting at Cartier:

"'Isn't this great? Isn't this making a new man of you, Dick?'

"Cartier would smile that thin little smile of his.

"'It's immense!' he would answer. 'Immense!'

"Mattern, m'sieu, like other men I have seen, was blind as a bat about some things. He thought that Cartier must be enjoying himself because *he* was having such a splendid time. He could not see that Cartier was almost dying on his feet. I saw. I counted him no better than a dead man. But I knew that his lips were locked, that he was afraid of the fear which gripped him every hour, and that pride would not let him put it into speech."

"What was he afraid of—death?" Lambert asked.

"I cannot say," answered Pierre. "Sometimes I thought it was just the bigness and stillness and cruelty of the wilderness. Sometimes I thought it was the spectacle of Mattern's great muscles doing every day things which were impossible for him. There is that sort of fear—fear of one's own weakness.

"How long this could have gone on, *le bon Dieu* only knows. Not long, I think. It is not easy to kill a man by hard work, but when you couple fear to that it is different. There is no spirit to drive the body on. It was so with Cartier. And we were three days from the canoes, and four from Lost Lake.

"I was sitting by the fire patching a moccasin that night. Mattern was asleep—he could always drop down and sleep like a dog—and Cartier lay on his blankets, staring up at the sky with wide eyes, his hands locked under his head. There was a snapping in the bushes, and Latrobe walked out into the firelight. M. Lambert knows Latrobe?"

"I think so," answered Lambert. "The one they call The Shadow?"

"*Bien!*" answered Pierre; "and the name fits. In the canoe he is not much; my grandson can beat him. But in the woods I know no man who can keep pace with him. He had started from White Falls four days after we left!

"He stopped in front of the fire, nodded to me, and took a telegram out of his pocket.

"'For him,' he said, pointing to Mattern.

"Cartier got up, started to rouse his friend, then turned to Latrobe.

"'You don't, by chance, know what's in that message, do you?' he asked.

"'Somebody sick,' answered Latrobe.

"'Any name?'

"'Some woman,' Latrobe told him. 'Maude.'"

There was a pause, and Pierre's pipe rapped against the side of the canoe.

"Once at Lac Bleu," he resumed, "I saw the face of a man when a knife was driven between his shoulder-blades. For one instant Cartier's face was like that, then it was gone so quickly that I could have sworn I

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had not seen it, and he turned and began shaking Mattern by the shoulder.

"'Wake up, old man!' he said.

"Mattern sat up, rubbing his eyes.

"'What is it?' he asked.

"'Telegram,' answered Cartier. 'Get a grip on yourself. Remember that telegrams up here aren't likely to mean good news.'

"Mattern took the telegram from Latrobe and read it. All the laughter went out of him.

"'Maude Daniels is ill,' he said to Cartier. 'They don't think there's a chance.'

"Then he turned to me.

"'How soon can we get back, Pierre?'

"'Five days,' I said.

"'Five days—and that girl dying! God!' he groaned.

"I started to speak, but I was not quick enough; Cartier was before me.

"'Why, man,' he said, 'five days is just time enough for her to get well. Like enough there'll be a wire waiting for us at White Falls saying she's right as a trivet, and we'll have all this business to do over. She's probably well now; that wire's been chasing us four days in this good fellow's pocket, you know."

"I could not believe my ears. Every day a little I had heard Cartier talk, but never like that. And when I looked at his face I hardly knew him. It was not that the great fear was gone, but he had put something else above it. And I knew what it was; I had known by the look in his face when Latrobe said 'Maude.'"

"He loved the woman too," Lambert said, almost unconsciously.

"But certainly, m'sieu. Yet something more than that. If the telegram had come to him, I think that he would have turned over and died that night, like one who is very tired. But the little yellow paper had been sent to the other man! It had hurt Cartier too much to kill him. But it had given him something to do.

"We started that night. Mattern walked like a blind man, stumbling. And Cartier talked. If I could have all that he said in those days and nights put into books, they would fill the little shelf that hangs above the fireplace in my cabin. His tongue was never still. He told us long tales that seemed to have no end, yet made us walk softly and avoid dead twigs, so that we might lose no word. He made us laugh until we had to stop on the trail and catch our breath. He even made Latrobe laugh, this man who, in the eleven days that I had known him, had done no more than smile his thin little smile perhaps a dozen times.

"But he did not always tell us stories. At times he talked to Mattern of the woman who was ill. I did not hear much of this. It was not for my ears. But one or two things came to me.

"'Why, man alive,' I heard him say, 'a woman like that doesn't die! God is above such things. Do you suppose he'd let such a woman love a man, and then die before he could reach her?'

"It was on the next day that Mattern fell and broke his leg. That strength of his did it. He was in too great a hurry; he was not careful on a dangerous rock ledge. It was a bad break; I knew that the instant I I had run my fingers over it. We did what we could, and Mattern sat and cried like a baby. The spirit of him had turned to water.

"Cartier drew me to one side.

"'What's to be done?' he demanded. 'Can we carry him to the canoe?'

"'He is very heavy,' I said, 'and there are only two of us.'

"'Two!' he cried; 'Good God, do you think as little of me as that? Come on, let's make the litter.'

"We carried him to the canoe in two days and two nights. I do not want to pass through another such forty-eight hours, nor, do I think, does Latrobe. Until then I did not know what it was to be tired. Tired! That is not the word; there is no word! A dozen times Latrobe and I would have given up, but Cartier would not let us.

"He did it, m'sieu, that tongue of his brought us through—that and something which burned behind those glasses without rims. I could have broken his arm with the strength in my two wrists, but I could not face his tongue. I would have killed men for a hundredth part of what he called me. But he drove us to the river. Only once did I try to stop him.

"'But you, m'sieu,' I said, 'you will never reach White Falls alive!'

"'Me!' he answered. 'What possible difference does it make what becomes of me?'

"When we reached the canoe, Mattern was a sick man. It had not been easy in the litter all those hours, and, careful as we

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had been, there had been falls. His leg was very bad and fever had set in.

"They thought we were four men come back from the dead when our canoe came up to the little wharf at White Falls. Cartier called to them from the canoe.

"'Is there a telegram for Mattern?' he cried.

"And when they said no he fell back in his seat as though the life had gone out of him.

Pierre stopped abruptly and a match rasped loudly and sputtered into flame. Dr. Lambert turned his head.

"Well?" he demanded.

"That is really all, m'sieur," answered Pierre. "We put them both onto the train, Mattern out of his head, Cartier no better than a corpse. I have never seen either of them since nor heard of them. And I have wondered many times what happened. Perhaps now M. Lambert will understand why I do not call any man a coward."

Lambert was silent for a long minute.

"Queer how the parts of a thing knit themselves together!" he muttered. "Yes, I understand how you built your theory, Pierre. And, strangely enough, I can finish the story. It happens that I was the doctor who helped the woman through the dark place, and I put Mattern's tibia back where it belonged. They both got well."

Pierre jumped so that the canoe rocked.

"*Mille diables*, but that is good!" he exclaimed. Then his face sobered. "And Cartier—he died, of course?"

"Oh, no," answered Lambert. "He married the woman!"

OUR COUNTRY[1]

BY BAINBRIDGE COLBY

OF THE NEW YORK BAR

A DISTINGUISHED tourist from abroad, at the conclusion of a recent visit, was commenting, after the manner of foreign visitors, upon our institutions and our National outlook. He seemed particularly impressed by the great tide of immigration pouring through our gateways and its effect upon our citizenship. "These newcomers," said he, "with few exceptions do not love America. They love its body, not its soul. They appreciate the relative ease of making a living and the higher plane of comfort upon which existence is possible, but they know nothing of your history, of the genius of your institutions, of the true meaning of America."

This was said with the cocksureness which a brief sojourn and a rapid survey of America seem to inspire in foreign visitors. But true words are often spoken not only in jest, but in a hurried observation. If the charge is true, in a degree, of our naturalized citizenship, is it wholly untrue of our native citizens? What is "Our Country"? Other lands are as fair to look upon. Nature has not reserved her bounty for us alone. Other nations can boast a domain larger than ours, and many have a longer history.

What is Our Country? What vision does it call up? Is it certain that we see more than its material form and outlines—its thriving commerce, its bulging storehouses, its teeming population? Have we caught the true significance of Country? Do we love it in *spirit* and in *truth*? America's past is glorious because of the glorious deeds of her sons. The voice of America is heard in their utterances. The aspirations of Our Country are seen in their lives. Search their lives and words, and you shall find the authentic note of America.

There was a time when this was a little country, and girt about with foes. But we did not flinch. When the oppressive laws of the mother country left no doubt of England's resolve to break the spirit and the fortunes of the colonists, George Washington quietly appeared in the Continental Congress clothed in the blue and buff uniform of a Virginia colonel, and he wore it from that day until finally called to the command of the army before Boston. *Here* spoke our country. In unmistakable accents, by the

[1] An address at the Progressive National Committee Dinner, Chicago, Illinois, on the evening of January 10, 1916.

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simple example of the calmest and bravest of her sons, she stated her belief that the time for action had come, and that no more time should be wasted on humble petitions for the redress of grievances to a Parliament resolved on war.

Thomas Jefferson spoke the voice of Our Country when, a little later, he said: "It is not to the moderation and justice of others we are to trust for fair and equal access to market with our productions, or for our due share in the transportation of them, but to our own means of independence and the firm will to use them."

No less did President John Adams voice the true America when, in his message of 1798, he said: "In demonstrating by our conduct that we do not fear war in the necessary protection of our rights and honor, we shall give no room to infer that we abandon the desire of peace. An efficient preparation for war can alone secure peace."

When France, during the Napoleonic struggle, was violating our ports, seizing our ships and despoiling our citizens, it was Joseph Story, the jurist and expounder of the Constitution, then a student in Harvard, who composed a patriotic ode still treasured by Harvard men as one of the University's contributions to the history of Our Country. Story wrote:

"Shall Gallia's clan our coast invade,
With hellish outrage, scourge the main,
Insult our Nation's neutral trade,
And we not dare our rights maintain?"

And in more laconic phrase, but with equal vigor, the celebrated Pinckney uttered those words which will never die: "Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute."

The men who founded our liberties with a mailed hand detested war as the most futile of follies. "My first wish," said Washington, "is to see this plague of mankind banished from the earth." But they abhorred dishonor more. An affront to our dignity, a violation of Our Country's rights, they would discuss, indeed, with a certain grave but limited patience, hastening unmistakably to the demand for unqualified disavowal and prompt satisfaction.

The voice of Our Country was heard in Decatur's reply to the arrogant Bey of Algiers when America resolved to put an end to piracy in the Mediterranean. The Barbary States, it will be recalled, had levied tribute upon the shipping of the world for centuries. The most powerful maritime nations, England and France, had for two hundred years paid tribute. America refused. And when Commodore Decatur and his squadron appeared to demand the release of Americans held as slaves by the Barbary States and indemnification for past outrages, the Bey asked for time to consider the question. It was denied. Then Decatur was asked to concede only three hours. "Not a minute," said the American Commodore; and the quarter-deck of his flag-ship was instantly the scene of a historic capitulation.

It was for Our Country that Calhoun spoke in 1811, when, after a recital of the extent, duration, and character of the injuries received by us at England's hands, the failure of peaceable means for redressing those injuries, the laws passed professedly to regulate our trade with other nations, negotiations resorted to time after time until they became hopeless, he said:

> Which shall we do, abandon or defend our own commercial and maritime rights and the personal liberties of our citizens in exercising them? . . . Sir, which alternative this House ought to sustain is not for me to say. I hope the decision is made already by a higher authority than the voice of any man. It is not for the human tongue to instill the sense of independence and honor. This is the work of nature—a generous nature that disdains tame submission to wrongs.

In the same crisis Henry Clay, of Kentucky, spoke the true voice of Our Country when he declared: "The colors that float from the masthead should be the credentials of our seamen." Again he said: "When did submission to one wrong induce an adversary to cease his encroachments on the party submitting?"

What American does not recall with pride the vigorous state papers of Webster and Marcy and Seward? There was no speculation in those days as to how far our State Department could legally go in vindicating an affront to our flag, or in protecting our citizens from insult or injury. Hear what Marcy said when Austria endeavored forcibly to arrest Martin Koszta, an Austrian subject who had applied for citizenship in this country, but had not yet become fully naturalized. He was on a visit to Smyrna when he was arrested and taken aboard an Austrian ship of war. Captain Ingraham, of the American sloop St. Louis, cleared his ship for action and demanded the immediate release of Koszta, and he was delivered up. In the course of

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the diplomatic correspondence that ensued Marcy, Secretary of State, said:

Whenever, by the operation of the law of nations, an individual becomes clothed with our national character, be he a native-born or naturalized citizen, an exile driven from his early home by political oppression, or an emigrant enticed from it by the hopes of a better fortune for himself and his posterity, he can claim the protection of this Government, and it may respond to that claim without being obliged to explain its conduct to any foreign power; for it is its duty to make its nationality respected by other nations, and respectable in every quarter of the globe.

It has been said recently in this country and on high authority that it is the duty of Americans to be neutral in word and deed, aye, even in thought; to fight down any generous response which the significance of the immeasurable struggle now being waged may evoke within us. *The principle of democracy may be battling for its life. We must sit still. The cause of civil liberty may be gravely imperiled. We must not cry out, much less lift up our hands.*

It was not always thus that our country has stood mute at such a juncture. When Greece in the last century was struggling for her independence against the hateful yoke of Turkish oppression, President Monroe in his Message to Congress said, without indirection or concealment of his feelings: "A strong hope has been long entertained, founded on the heroic struggle of the Greeks, that they would succeed in their contest, and resume their equal station among the nations of the earth. It is believed that the whole civilized world takes a deep interest in their welfare."

This expression from an American President called forth from Webster his immortal salutation to the struggling Greeks. His oration was *not neutral* according to a later standard, but it was American, and in every line and word of it Our Country spoke. He had no doubt of *our right to speak*, no doubt that we were *vitally interested* in the outcome of the struggle, no doubt that it was *our duty* to make known our attitude. Said Daniel Webster:

We stand as an equal among nations, claiming the full benefit of the established international law, and it is our duty to oppose, from the earliest to the latest moment, any innovation upon that code which shall bring into doubt or question our own equal and independent rights.

The asserted right of forcible intervention in the affairs of other nations is in open violation of the public law of the world. What is it to us, it may be asked, upon what principles or what pretenses the European governments assert a right of interfering in the affairs of their neighbors? The thunder, it may be said, rolls at a distance. The wide Atlantic is between us and danger, and, however others may suffer, we shall remain safe. I think it is a sufficient answer to this to say that we are one of the nations of the earth; that we have an interest, therefore, in the preservation of that system of national law and national intercourse which has heretofore subsisted so beneficially to all.

We have as clear an interest in international law as individuals have in the laws of society. But apart from the soundness of the policy, on the ground of direct interest, we have, sir, a duty connected with this subject which I trust we are willing to perform. What do we not owe to the cause of civil and religious liberty? To the principle of lawful resistance? To the principle that society has a right to partake in its own government?

Does it not become us, then, is it not a duty imposed on us, to give our word to the side of liberty and justice, to let mankind know that we are not tired of our own institutions, and to protest against the asserted power of altering at pleasure the law of the civilized world?

Thus spoke Our Country through the voice of one of her greatest sons, and thus she has ever spoken, even when "the thunder did not roll at such a distance."

In one of the darkest hours of the Civil War our Minister at London sent word to our Secretary of State that he had reason to believe that proposals would be addressed to him by the English Ministry looking to intervention. Seward's letter in reply will always be a shining page in the history of Our Country. Although we were engaged in a struggle for the preservation of our National existence which taxed our strength, and although the menace proceeded from the greatest Power in the world, the voice of Our Country did not falter. Our Minister was told to decline all debate of the question of intervention. If the subject was persisted in, he was told to announce his mission at an end and to leave England. Said Seward, speaking of this step, which was recognized as involving a rupture with England: "Its possible consequences have been weighed, and its solemnity is therefore felt and freely acknowledged. . . . You will perceive that we have approached the contemplation of that crisis with the caution which great reluctance has inspired. But I trust that you

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will also have perceived that the crisis has not appalled us."

Right well and high did Seward carry the standard of his country, and with a firm hand.

Secretary of State Olney caught the true note of Our Country in his discussion with Great Britain of the Venezuelan boundary when he said:

> That there are circumstances under which a nation may justly interpose in a controversy to which two or more other nations are the direct and immediate parties is an admitted canon of international law. If any such right and duty exist, their due exercise and discharge will not permit of any action that shall not be efficient, and that, if the power of the United States is adequate, shall not result in the accomplishment of the end in view.

So has Our Country spoken in the crises of the past. From the beginning of its political existence it has been the champion of the most advanced ideas of natural right and justice. Our country has always been the recognized upholder of the principles of humanity over tyranny and force. We have stood for the greater reign of reason.

The past is secure. It is characteristic. It is honorable. It fixes a standard and imposes a duty in the present, from which we should not swerve. Has that duty been performed? I wish it were possible to think so. Does our country speak to-day as she has been accustomed to speak in the glorious past? Can we regard ourselves as the champions of civil liberty and of the oppressed? Do security and dignity dwell under the shadow of our flag? Is American citizenship all that it has been in the past and all that it should be now? Has the true voice of Our Country yet been heard as to the unwarned sinking of defenseless merchantmen, the wanton slaying of women and children at sea, the trampling down of national life, the interruption of our legitimate neutral commerce, the violation of solemn treaties, the substitution of frightfulness for faith?

Better than a third, or a fourth, or a fifth note from our State Department, each excelling its predecessor in rhetorical finish and dialectical refinement, are, it seems to me, such rugged words as were spoken by Grant at Fort Donelson: "No terms except unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted. I propose to move upon your works immediately."

Better than long waiting for the corroboration of what is known, for the certification of the obvious and proof of the conceded, in matters in which the lives of Americans are involved, and in which our power and disposition to avenge insults to our nationality are openly derided, better, I say, in tone and substance, is the policy reflected in the famous message sent from the Treasury Department on January 29, 1861, signed by John A. Dix, Secretary of the Treasury of the United States: "If any one attempts to haul down the American flag, shoot him on the spot."

With equal vividness did this true Americanism flash in the more recent message of Secretary of State John Hay, during the Administration of Theodore Roosevelt, "We want Pericardis alive or Raisuli dead."

In these days of storm and stress, of trial and doubt, it is well to conjure up these figures from our mighty past. Let us lift up our eyes unto them, as to the hills, whence cometh our strength.

KNOLL PAPERS

BY LYMAN ABBOTT

TO AN UNKNOWN FRIEND

I wish you would explain what is meant by "vicarious substitution." How can an innocent person be substituted for a guilty person and bear his punishment in his stead?

THE doctrine of a substitutional atonement is popularly expressed by the lines:

> "Jesus died and paid it all,
> All the debt I owe."

An evangelist once illustrated it by telling his congregation the following story:

A benevolent gentleman saw on a London street a little girl crying bitterly. He stopped and asked her what was the matter. Between her sobs she made out to tell him that her father had given her a penny to buy a loaf of bread; that she had dropped her penny, it had rolled away and she could not

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find it; and that if she went home without the loaf her father would give her an awful whipping. The benevolent gentleman bade her dry up her tears; he would make it right for her. So he took her to the baker's, bought the loaf, and sent her home rejoicing. He paid her debt for her. "You know," added the evangelist, "that there are fathers who are just as cruel as that." It apparently never occurred to him what sort of character he was attributing to his own heavenly Father; as, apparently, it never occurs to the congregations that sing the verse,

"Jesus died and paid it all,
All the debt I owe,"

that they are denying absolutely that God the heavenly Father ever forgives his children's sins. For if the debt is *paid*, it is not *forgiven*. The notion that Jesus suffers the penalty of our sins, that the innocent is punished for the wrong-doing of the guilty, I repudiate absolutely and with indignation as irrational, unscriptural, and unspiritual.

Jesus is not represented in the Bible as punished in the place of the sinner; he is not represented as saving sinners from their punishment. He is called Jesus because he saves us from our *sins*, not from our punishment. On him is laid the *iniquity*, not the penalty of us all. By his stripes we are *healed*, not excused. In the cup which he passes to his disciples at the Last Supper is symbolized his blood shed for many for the remission of *sins*, not of penalties. The blood of Jesus Christ cleanseth us from *all sins*, not lets us off from all punishment.[1]

When Thomas Mott Osborne goes to Auburn State Prison and voluntarily shares the experiences of the prisoners—their cells, their menial offices, their inadequate food, their unsanitary conditions, and even their punishment cells—it is not that he may set them free from prison. He suffers with them, but he does not suffer in their stead. He shares their experiences that he may impart to them his experiences; without having committed their offense, he shares with them their punishment, that he may inspire in them an aspiration to live an honest life and a hope and purpose so to do. When to one of the prisoners he holds out a hope of pardon, the prisoner promptly rejects and even resents the offer. About to leave the prison, he says to his partner in the prison work:

"Some time, Jack, some day in the future when the right time has come, you can count upon me to go to the Governor for you."

At this suggestion of a pardon I expect to get from Jack a quick word of gratitude, some sort of indication that he is conscious of having attained his first step toward freedom, the interest of a friend who may be able to secure fair consideration, at least, of an application for pardon.

To my surprise he turns to me almost roughly. "Put that right out of your mind, Tom," he says. "Don't you bother your head about that one single minute. I am ready to stay behind these walls all my life if I can help you and the Commission bring about some of these reforms you have in mind. That's all I want."

This is a true symbol of a Christian experience. Because Jesus Christ has come into life and shared with humanity its experiences of trial, temptation, and suffering; because he has known the handicap of poverty, the bitterness of misunderstanding by his pupils, desertion by his friends, and execration by his enemies; because he has experienced the disappointment of a noble ambition, the physical pains of a lingering and torturing death, and the more awful pangs of a broken heart; and because we, his pupils and followers, believe that he is still here, an unseen though not unrealized Presence, we wish to stay as long as we may and do what little we can to bring about some of the reforms he has in mind. That's all we want.

Jesus Christ did not suffer and die that we might escape suffering and death. We still suffer, we still die, and he forewarned his disciples that they must bear with him the burdens which he bore. He suffered not to appease God's wrath and induce him to forgive, nor to satisfy God's law and enable him to forgive. He came into life as Thomas Mott Osborne went into Auburn State Prison, not that he might obtain for us a pardon, but that he might inspire in us his life by sharing with us our life. This is what the forgiveness of sins means. This is what Paul means by:

"He hath made him to be sin for us, who knew no sin; that we might be made the righteousness of God in him."

The Knoll, Cornwall-on-the-Hudson, New York.

[1] Matt. i. 21; Isaiah liii. 5, 6; Matt. xxvi. 28; I John i. 9. The reader who cares to study this subject may look up, by the aid of a reference Bible, parallel passages, and he will look in vain for one which promises to the repentant exemption from *punishment*; what they promise is deliverance from *sin*.

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BY THE WAY

The entire Pennsylvania Railroad system, with 26,000 miles of track, has, it is announced, completed two years without a single one of the 361,572,114 passengers carried in that period being killed in a train accident. The lines east of Pittsburgh have completed their third successive year without a single fatality of this class.

Do woodpeckers get drunk? The question is seriously asked by Professor Burges Johnson in "Harper's Magazine" as the result of certain observations in a camp in Maine. Eminent naturalists to whom Professor Johnson wrote disagree. Ernest Thompson Seton says: "The story of woodpeckers getting drunk on fermented sap is an absurd fable." John Burroughs answers: "Both birds and insects might get drunk on the fermented sap." Ernest H. Baynes, of Meriden, New Hampshire, says: "I do not think it impossible, perhaps not improbable." Professor J. B. Watson, of Johns Hopkins, says: "I have seen robins in a 'loggy' condition upon very ripe berries in the South."

Proverbs have great influence with the Japanese in their daily lives, according to a writer in the "Christian Register." Among their countless adages these, with their English equivalents, are quoted: "Some insects feed upon smartweed" (There is no accounting for tastes). "If in a hurry, go round" (The more haste, the less speed). "Live under your own hat" (Let well enough alone). "The mouth is the front gate of misfortune" (The tongue is a fire, a world of iniquity).

The philanthropic impulses of the sentimentalist receive this "palpable hit" from "Life:" Young Girl: "Yes! I feel an intense longing to do something for others." Friend: "Just whom do you mean by others?" "Well, I suppose almost anybody outside of my immediate family."

A letter from Shelley, the poet, to a friend, which was recently sold at auction for $1,485 in New York, gives a picture of Byron's strenuous life: "Lord Byron gets up at 2 [P.M.]. I get up . . . at 12. After breakfast we sit talking till 6. From 6 to 8 we gallop through the pine forests. . . . We then come home and dine and sit up gossiping till 6 in the morning. I don't suppose this will kill me in a week or a fortnight, but I shall not try it any longer."

In a "general information test" conducted by a school in Baltimore many amusing answers were given to the questions asked. Waterloo was located in Ireland, Gotham in Belgium; the Sublime Porte was identified as a "good wine," while Adam's ale was described as "a drink that was made early in human history in the Garden of Eden," and another boy said that it is "the lump in a man's neck." A hyphenated American, according to one student, is "an American who talks in short sentences," and conscription "is a thing that is written on a tombstone." Lewis Carroll, one young Baltimorean declares, wrote the "Star-Spangled Banner." On being asked how many people were saved in Noah's ark, one student replied, "We all of us were." The question, "Why does a blacksmith heat an iron tire before putting it on the wheel?" received from one boy (who apparently thought it a "catch" question) the answer, "He doesn't."

"Who leads a good life is sure to live long," might be a variation of the old song in speaking of the Rev. William Barnes, of Asheville, North Carolina, who died recently at the age of 103 years and 8 months. Mr. Barnes was thought to be the oldest minister in the United States. He preached occasionally up to the year of his death.

A subject for discussion around the library table in the winter evenings might be, What word is most frequently mispronounced? "Arctic," widely pronounced without the first c, would have a high place in the list; others might be these: cul-inary for cu-linary, la*ment*able for *lam*entable, airoplane for a-e-roplane, *ac*-climate for ac*cli*mate, cupol*o* for cupol*a*, charlotte *roosh* for *russe*.

In somebody's book on "Little Brothers of the Great" a prominent place will doubtless be given to Angelo Sarto, the brother of the late Pope Pius X. He was a postman almost up to the time of his death a few days ago. He occasionally visited his brother, traveling third-class from his humble home in Grazia to the magnificent palace of the Popes in Rome which was the abode of his distinguished relative.

Slips of speech are amusingly and yet scientifically analyzed in Dr. Freud's recent book, "The Psychopathology of Every-Day Life." One of the illustrations is that of a young, nervous physician who called on the celebrated Dr. Virchow and, when admitted to the presence of the great man, said, instead of giving his own name, "I am Dr. Virchow"! The astonished Professor exclaimed, "What! is your name also Virchow?" The finale is not recorded.

These slips of speech, and also similar slips of the pen, are, unhappily, universal; even the editors of The Outlook are not exempt from the latter! A recent example on their part was an editorial substitution of "Missionary" Ridge for "Cemetery" Ridge, the former referring to the Battle of Chattanooga, the latter to that of Gettysburg. Some mysterious psychological motivation brought "missionary" to the surface when "cemetery" was in the mind—was it because both words suggest peace and religion?

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